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THE NEED OF A CONSTRUCTIVE SOCIAL PROGRAM FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

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How to handle student organizations in high schools is a perplexing problem for most school administrators. Educators have felt, on the one hand, that the social instincts of the pupils naturally lead them to form into groups and that they can derive much valuable experience from managing the school societies which they institute. On the other hand, such organizations frequently become undemocratic. Too few pupils participate in them; they are often too expensive; and they are often too difficult to control. The real test, however, of the value of student organizations to the school should be the same as the test applied to any other departments of school activity; namely, how far do such organizations promote the chief ends of education, i.e., education of the type necessary in a democracy like the United States? In order to apply this test, it may be well, at the risk of seeming trite, to examine our present-day conception of the goal of secondary education, and then to consider whether, in any way, high-school societies help the pupil to reach this goal. Secondary education in America has long aimed at the developing, so far as possible, of each pupil into a well-rounded individual, fitted for citizenship in a democracy. To be so fitted he should have the physical equipment and the technical

training that will enable him to be self-supporting. He must have such training as will enable him eventually to maintain a home where he may successfully rear those who are later to take his place in the community. He must be able intelligently to assume his share of responsibility in the government under which he lives, and he should spend his leisure hours in a way that will help to round out his personality and to give him some appreciation of the finer things of life.

Any social activities of the pupils which will help to further these main objectives of education will readily be accepted as legitimate functions of the school. Conversely, it ought to be obvious that student activities that do not fit into this scheme of education have no place in the school system. The following study of organizations in representative high schools of the country has been made in order to determine whether or not the student organizations of the modern high school do, in any way, help to fulfil the aims of secondary education.

The experience of the teachers of the Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska, in trying to deal with the problem of school organizations probably has been fairly typical of the experience of teachers in other schools. There exist in the Lincoln High School four literary societies for girls and two debating and one scientific society for boys. There were also prior to this year seven Greek-letter fraternities, and a number of clubs, entirely local but more or less secret. The societies recognized by the school have become, largely, exclusive social clubs, if one is to judge from their reports of meetings held during the past year. Until last year all were accustomed to give social functions at the local hotels. This custom of holding entertainments in public places had become established, for the most part, because the school for years was housed in very cramped quarters where there was no suitable place for parties to be held. Because the social meetings of these organizations were held in public places, teachers found the task of chaperonage very difficult and tried to turn the responsibility over to the parents, the teachers being responsible for no entertainments given outside the high-school building. The attempt was not very successful; for there was no check on the expense connected with student

parties held in hotels or public halls; there were no regulations as to the time when the parties should close, nor as to who might attend; and frequently there was no satisfactory chaperonage. The girls' societies were in the habit of giving "rushing" parties, and aped college sororities in many ways. Both the boys' and the girls' societies seemed to be rapidly changing into purely social organizations of little value to the school or to the members of the societies. Because of the dissatisfaction of parents, pupils, and teachers with these conditions, a "student affairs committee" composed of Miss Sarah T. Muir, Miss Margaret Davis, Miss Annetta Sprung, Mr. A. T. Cavanaugh, Miss Olivia Pound, and Mr. Jesse H. Newlon, principal, was appointed in the fall of 1916. This committee was to have charge of all social activities of the pupils. They investigated the situation and passed the following tentative rules:

RULES FOR THE STUDENT SOCIETIES OF THE LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL

1. Each society will be permitted two formal functions each year.
2. All parties must close by 11:30 P.M. General school parties must close by 10:30 P.M.
3. The cost of a party must not exceed \$1.00 per member participating.
4. Each society meeting bi-weekly must have at least five serious programs each semester. Each society meeting weekly must have twelve programs each semester.
5. All formal parties must be chaperoned by at least two teachers and two parents. The sponsor of a society or class must approve of the chaperons for a party at least five days prior to the party.
6. The books of all treasurers of societies, or classes, or other student organizations must show all expenses of the organizations whatsoever. All treasurers' books must be audited semiannually by an auditor appointed by the principal.
7. The secretary of each society or class must report in writing at the end of each semester to the principal, or to some student committee which may be constituted for that purpose, upon the activities of the societies during the semester. This secretary's report must show the programs as actually given in the meetings.
8. The society and not the sponsors of a society will be held responsible for the enforcement of these rules. The sponsors will not be expected to do the work of the society. It will be their function to advise and help the society to the best of their ability whenever the societies ask for such assistance. Except in cases of emergency the sponsors will not be expected to exercise any repressive powers.

A study was made later to determine how well the school societies lived up to these rules, the percentage of members participating in the programs, the scholastic standing of the members, and their attendance record. A similar study was made also of the scholastic standing and attendance of 129 fraternity and of as many non-fraternity boys. It was hoped in this way to determine, if possible, the value of school organizations for high-school pupils. The following is a summary of this investigation:

REPORT ON THE STUDENT SOCIETIES OF THE LINCOLN HIGH SCHOOL FOR THE SECOND SEMESTER 1916-17

SUMMARY FOR GIRLS' SOCIETIES

Total membership, 115
 Average membership in four societies, 28
 Average number of members participating in the programs, 7
 Number of teachers acting as sponsors for these societies, 8
 Average annual expense per member (for three societies), \$2.61
 Absences, 909
 Cases of tardiness 224
 Scholastic standing: The 115 members of girls' societies made a grade of 90 per cent or above in 250 studies and failed in 28 studies.

SUMMARY FOR 115 GIRLS NOT MEMBERS OF GIRLS' SOCIETIES

Absences, 933½
 Cases of tardiness, 178
 Scholastic standing: The 115 girls not members of girls' societies made a grade of 90 per cent or above in 232 studies and failed in 36 studies.

SUMMARY FOR BOYS' SOCIETIES

Total membership in three societies, 76
 Average membership in three societies, 25
 Total number of programs (two societies), 8
 Percentage of membership participating in the programs (not given)
 Number of teachers acting as sponsors for these societies, 3
 Average annual expense per member, \$4.59
 Absences, 659
 Case of tardiness, 386
 Scholastic standing: The 76 members of boys' societies made a grade of 90 per cent or above in 82 studies and failed in 43 studies.

SUMMARY FOR 129 MEMBERS OF FRATERNITIES

Absences, 1,386
 Cases of tardiness, 802
 Scholastic standing: The 129 members of fraternities made a grade of 90 per cent or above in 96 studies and failed in 102 studies.

SUMMARY FOR 129 BOYS NOT MEMBERS OF SOCIETIES NOR FRATERNITIES

Absences, 1,085

Cases of tardiness, 412

Scholastic standing: The 129 boys members neither of fraternities nor societies made a grade of 90 per cent or above in 152 studies and failed in 48 studies.

At the same time that the student affairs committee was investigating the student societies in the Lincoln High School a study was made also of similar organizations in other high schools of the country to see whether we were dealing fairly with our pupils in making the rules given above, to learn how similar situations in other schools are handled, and to secure help in solving our present difficulties; but mainly we wished to determine, if possible, the place of such organizations in the modern scheme of secondary education. In order to learn of conditions in other schools the following questionnaire was sent to one hundred representative high schools of the country:

Name of school.....

Answered by.....

Official position.....

1. List of societies. (State purpose where name does not indicate it.)
 A. Literary. B. Departmental. C. Others.
2. Are your societies accomplishing their purposes? If not, why not?
3. Do you have any purely social societies?
4. Do you have any societies that do not have a social as well as serious purpose?
5. Do you have fraternities and sororities?
 If so, what is the attitude of your school toward them?
 Do you ignore them or do you propose to drive them out by legal processes?
 Have you ever had fraternities?
 If so, how did you get rid of them?
6. What jurisdiction and supervision of recognized societies is assumed by the faculty?
 How are society and class sponsors, or advisers, chosen?
 How long do they serve?
7. How are students admitted to your societies?
8. What rules and regulations governing society, class, and other social functions?
 A. Must they be held in the building?
 B. Are such functions permitted to be held in hotels, etc.?
 C. Is dancing permitted?

- D. What chaperonage?
- E. How much does it cost annually (approximately) for a student to belong to your most expensive society?
- F. What regulations regarding the cost of social functions?
- 9. How do you start a society?
- 10. How do you discontinue a society that has ceased to serve its purpose?
- 11. Are your students satisfied with your student societies?
- 12. What is their attitude toward faculty regulations?
- 13. What is the average membership of your societies?
- 14. What percentage of your student body belongs to your societies?
- 15. What provisions do you make for non-members?
- 16. What activities are carried on by class organizations (Senior, Junior, etc.)?
- 17. To what extent do these organizations dominate the social life of the school?
- 18. Is there a conscious attempt to provide activities for the entire membership of these class organizations?
- 19. Remarks.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

- 1. What organization, if any, do you have for student participation in the government of the school?
Describe briefly your organization.
- 2. If you have such an organization, what is the scope of its activities?
- 3. Give a list of definite undertakings on the part of this organization.
- 4. Name the offices of this organization.
The committees.
- 5. How do you supervise student finances?
- 6. To what extent, in your opinion, should the students participate in the government of the school?
- 7. What social activities are carried on by this organization?
- 8. Remarks.

The following report is based on the material in the answers received from the seventy-five schools replying:

The literary society is the oldest and most common type of high-school organization. There are 333 such societies reported by the schools in question, or an average of 4.4 to each school. The work in these societies varies from year to year. Few of them seem to concentrate their efforts on any line of work. Many schools reported that the conventional literary societies are the weakest societies of the school. Several comments of this kind appear in the answers to our questionnaire: "The literary societies are really fraternities which avoid being called fraternities by giving

literary programs." "The literary societies are social rather than literary and are too exclusive." "The literary societies are not accomplishing their purpose." "We have literary societies after a fashion. Not very lively at this time."

In contrast with the general literary societies are the departmental clubs which are interested in one particular line of work. There are 192 such organizations reported, or 2.4 per school. These organizations are, as a rule, sponsored by teachers especially interested in the work of the club, so that the sponsor and the club members are usually more in sympathy with one another than is the case in other organizations. Almost uniformly it was reported that the departmental clubs were accomplishing their purpose. ||

In the schools in question there are 135 other organizations, or an average of 1.8 per school, making an average of 8.6 student societies in each school. Of the miscellaneous organizations the most common types are the debating clubs and athletic associations. In addition to these there are various other organizations interested in all sorts of projects. There are purely social clubs, dramatic, travel, nature, outing, dancing, musical, and art clubs, clubs interested in everything from postage stamps or chess to social service. Some of these organizations have very unique and interesting names. The "Wranglers" is a debating society, as is also the "Tomahawk" and "Phlogiston." The "Globe Trotters" are obviously members of a travel club. "Papyrus" is an English club. A dramatic club is called the "Royal Mask." The "Nautilus" and the "Mimerian Society" are scholarship organizations. The name of the latter, a club in Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, California, comes from the fable of Odin, who sacrificed an eye for the privilege of tasting the water of wisdom from Mimer's well. The "Rhythmic Circle" is a girls' dancing club. Some of the societies, too, are interested in unusual projects. The "Cosmopolitan Club" of Hollywood High School, Los Angeles, California, aims to broaden the student's point of view beyond the community to the world at large. There is a "Taste and Tact Club" at the Washington Irving High School, New York City. The "Merrill Club" of West Division High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, is composed of all the girls of the school. Among other activities it

aims to bring about proper dress for girls. It puts on a style show each year, and through its leaders and committees corrects girls who are ill-mannered.

Practically all the student organizations recognized by the schools are sponsored by one or more teachers appointed by the principal or chosen by the organization with the approval of the principal. In a few schools the sponsor is chosen by the organization alone. In the latter case the comment was made that "there was a strong tendency to choose weak teachers." In one school only were recognized organizations not sponsored by teachers. The term of service of the sponsor is usually for one year or for an indefinite period. In a few schools it is for one semester. The schools almost uniformly report that the pupils are satisfied to have the teachers serve as advisers. They usually co-operate with the teachers in the most friendly way.

In almost all schools there are regulations governing society and class parties. Fifty-eight schools reported that parties must be held in the school building. In eighteen there was no such requirement. Fifty-three schools reported that such functions were not permitted to be held in hotels or public halls. In ten schools they might be held in such places. In forty-nine schools there might be dancing in the high-school building, while in seventeen others this was not allowed. In forty-six schools the teachers alone acted as chaperons, in twenty-four schools both teachers and parents chaperoned, and in one school the parents only.

Another matter of interest connected with school societies is the question of expense. The average cost annually for a student to belong to the most expensive societies in the schools in question is \$1.58. Four schools reported no expense. Twenty schools reported the expense as under \$1.00. Twenty-two schools gave the expense as \$3.00 or less. In only three schools was the expense over \$3.00. In one of these it was \$4.00, in another \$5.00, and in a third \$10.00. Most schools reported some regulations regarding the cost of social functions. Usually the sponsors of the societies have sole charge of such matters. Colorado Springs High School reports: "Cost is rigidly supervised and curtailed." The report from Manual Arts High School, Los Angeles, California, says:

"We insist on simplicity." The Montclair, New Jersey, High School statement says: "Social functions must be absolutely simple." West Division High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin: "Fifty cents is the maximum for tickets to social affairs." West High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota: "Social affairs must be informal, admission fees not over fifty cents per person." In the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, the admission fee to social affairs is fifty cents also.

New members are admitted to high-school societies in several ways. In thirteen schools they are admitted because of scholarship standing or by try-outs. In six schools they are elected on application or on the recommendation of the teachers, and in twenty-five schools new members are chosen by the societies as they may see fit. This shows a decidedly democratic tendency, since in thirty-eight schools membership in student societies is open to all or depends on merit.

The method by which new members are elected to societies leads to another important matter, namely, the average membership in student societies. In the schools in question the percentage of the student body belonging to societies is 47. This seems a rather small proportion of the students when one realizes that there are, on an average, about nine such organizations to each school. Thirteen schools reported that the majority of the pupils belonged to the societies. Eight schools gave the average membership as varying from eight to twenty. Fourteen schools gave the average membership as from twenty-five to fifty, and eight schools reported a membership of sixty to seventy-five. In several schools the authorities seemed to feel that too few pupils belonged to societies. The amount of time the sponsors had to give to the societies was not commensurate with the number of pupils benefited by the organizations.

Since only 47 per cent of the pupils of the schools take part in the school societies, it is obvious that the schools should provide some activities for the remaining 53 per cent of the school. In thirty-five of the schools in question some such provision is made. This usually takes the form of adding interest to the class organizations of the school, which are always open to all pupils. Other

activities mentioned are: interclass athletic contests, civic clubs, school "mixers," the social hour, group and school parties, dramatics, oratorical and declamatory contests, the school band, orchestra, and chorus, play festivals, excursions to places of scenic or civic interest, student councils, and similar activities. All these are open to any pupil who may wish to participate.

Froats - In many schools one stumbling-block in handling social organizations is the high-school fraternity. Since high-school fraternities are not, as a rule, recognized by the school, they are not amenable to the rules of the school governing expense, places where parties may be held, hours, chaperonage, and so on. Because the fraternities, as regards their organization, are almost free to do as they choose, the members of the recognized organizations usually chafe under restriction, and are inclined to imitate the fraternities so far as possible. The result is that the societies and the fraternities become an endless source of friction and annoyance. Since this is the case, it might not be out of place in this study of high-school social organizations to discuss the high-school fraternity also, for it exists in many schools. Fifty-seven of the schools in question reported that fraternities did not exist among them, though in thirty-nine of them fraternities had existed some time previously.

In seventeen of the schools fraternities are said to exist. Two officials were not sure whether there are fraternities in their schools or not. In two of the schools where there are fraternities the attitude of the school toward them was reported to be one of toleration. In ten schools they are ignored. In only one case are they fostered. In two cases the school authorities are still fighting them. In two schools they are said still to exist in spite of the state law, which is reported to be ineffectual.

In fourteen of the thirty-nine schools where there had been fraternities they were dropped because of the ruling of the board of education forbidding them. It is interesting to note that, with but one exception, school authorities are unanimously against high-school fraternities. The following quotations will show the attitude of educators toward them: "They are an abomination"; "We are continually waging warfare on their establishment"; "We are dead against them"; "We are absolutely opposed to

them"; "You cannot ignore them and endure"; "We have none, praise Jehovah!"

In seven of the schools where fraternities do exist members are barred from participation in all school activities other than class work. In the one school that reports a favorable attitude toward them there are said to be eleven or twelve such organizations. This same school reported twelve to fifteen as the average membership in societies, and 18 per cent of the student body belonging. No provision is made for non-members of societies.

In four schools where fraternities had existed and had been forced out, other school activities were substituted: "We have substituted other activities for them—student council, athletic sports of all kinds—and the 'frat' is so outclassed that it is no longer a question with us"; "We got rid of the fraternities first by establishing legitimate activities under faculty supervision, later we were backed by state law"; "We substituted clubs under faculty supervision"; "We have seen to it that there were enough legitimate student activities to keep things lively." In addition to these quotations it might not be out of place, before leaving the question of high-school fraternities, to give briefly the arguments for and against secret societies in high schools. The reasons generally given for their existence are: "They develop the social phase in student life"; "they tend to gratify the exclusive and secret tendency"; "they gratify the organizing instinct, and they are an imitation of college life." The arguments against them are: "They are undemocratic"; "the students get a false standard of life"; "the effect on school spirit is bad"; "they bring politics into the legitimate organizations of the school"; "the effect on scholarship is bad"; "the high-school student is too young for fraternity life."

The student organizations that are most democratic and most nearly give the students some training for citizenship are those that allow some degree of participation in school government. These organizations should not be confused with the more or less unsuccessful attempts at self-government that have been made from time to time in various schools. Perhaps they are an outgrowth of

¹ From Roscoe Conkling Hill, "Secret Societies in High Schools," *Educational Review*, February, 1912.

Councils

those attempts, but as a rule they are not so ambitious, and they have more definite aims. Usually these organizations have started by handling a few simple projects, and have branched out as they have gained in experience and confidence. Some student councils are very unambitious, being little more than an advisory body which meets with the principal or with members of the faculty to discuss problems of the student body. Such councils give the school authorities the pupils' point of view and in turn are valuable in bringing important projects before the school as a whole. Most of these student councils have a certain number of representatives chosen from the class organizations or from the session rooms. Sometimes there are teacher-members, but more commonly the principal alone meets with the council. Schools reporting some form of the advisory type of student councils are: Omaha, Nebraska, Central High School; Louisville, Kentucky, Boys' High School; Taylorville, Illinois, Township High School; Columbus, Ohio, Cresview Intermediate High School; Fort Wayne, Indiana, High School; Kansas City, Missouri, Manual Training High School; Erie, Pennsylvania, Central High School; Rockford, Illinois, High School; Gary, Indiana, Emerson High School.

In other high schools the student council is concerned largely with student activities, such as school parties, money-raising projects, school debates, athletics, assembly programs, student finances, student clubs, lyceum courses, care of school trophies, etc. Such organizations are reported in the following schools: Butte, Montana, High School; East St. Louis High School; Richmond, Indiana, High School; Los Angeles, California, Hollywood High School; Muskegon, Michigan, Hackley High and Manual Training School; Flushing, New York, High School.

There are a number of schools that have organizations which, in addition to the activities mentioned above, participate more or less actively in the discipline of the school. The student council has charge of all cases of tardiness, discipline in the halls, lunch-rooms, and on the school grounds, helps care for school property, and fosters high scholastic standing. They also assist visitors and welcome new pupils. The Sacramento, California, High School has a student association, modeled after the city charter, which

provides for the commission form of government. The school commissioners have charge of discipline in the halls and on the grounds, of school finances, entertainments, athletics, debates, the school paper, the annual, and school dramatics. There is a school police court of pupils and an appellate court of teachers. The West High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota, has a student executive board composed of eighteen pupils and two teachers, also a forum composed of two representatives from each of the fifty-three advisory groups of the school. These bodies supervise the order in the halls and in the lunchroom, the care of the toilet-rooms, the care of the grounds; they try to eliminate petty thieving and to minimize cribbing and cheating. The DeWitt Clinton High School of New York City has a general student organization as well as an executive council of six teachers and eight pupils. These organizations help to regulate the establishment and management of all school teams, clubs, associations, and societies connected with the school. There is also a sanitary squad of pupils, a printing squad, a traffic squad, a study-hall squad, and a hall squad. The more fortunately endowed pupils, those who have attained honors in school, every afternoon conduct classes for the purpose of aiding their less fortunate fellows in catching up with their studies.

The student body organization of the Manual Arts High School of Los Angeles, California, is composed of 2,200 students and the teachers of the school. The aim of the organization is "to do at all times all it can, in all the ways it can, all the good it can for Manual Arts." There is also a council of all the classroom presidents, seventy-five in number. This meets twice a week to debate and decide on important questions of interest to the students. There are also a girls' and a boys' self-government organization. These have charge of all cases of tardiness. Each branch has a court and jury. There is, in addition, a board of finance, composed of students and teachers, which handled during one year \$50,000. The co-operative form of student organization is reported to exist in the following schools: Highland Park High School, Cook County, Illinois; Union High School, Gresham, Oregon; Montclair, New Jersey, High School; Orange Union High School, Orange, California; East Side High School, Denver, Colorado; Dubuque,

Iowa, High School; English High School, Boston, Massachusetts; Colorado Springs, Colorado, High School; Washington Irving High School, New York City; DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City; West High School, Minneapolis, Minn.; Springfield, Illinois, High School; Decatur, Illinois, High School.

There is wide difference in opinion among school authorities in regard to the advisability of student participation in the management of the school. Twenty-three administrators seemed to have no definite opinion on the subject. Others seemed to confuse the project with student self-government, or were opposed to it altogether, as the following comments will show: "Students should study and recite, teachers should *teach* and supervise"; "Students should not have a direct voice in governing their fellow-students"; "First- and second-year students are incapable of self-government, and Juniors are little better. I think Seniors need to be backed up by a pretty definite set of restrictions"; "There should be no student participation in the government of the school. *A school must be a benevolent despotism*"; "There should be no student participation absolutely, except as school spirit and respect for proper authority may assist."

On the other hand, many school men are enthusiastic over the possibilities arising from student participation in the management of the school. The following quotations will give the view of some of them: "It is ideal in my opinion"; "They should participate just so far as they will go. If they succeed they have other things added unto them"; "They should participate to a considerable extent. To be trusted is to be saved. Children should get in the habit of taking responsibility"; "They should be allowed as much freedom as tends to develop respect for law and order, with a large spirit of co-operation with the faculty"; "Student participation is valuable toward bringing the pupil's mind to a realization of what education and its implements mean for good citizenship."

Of all student societies, these co-operative organizations seem to give the most promise of making a real contribution to the pupil's education. Since the ultimate aim of secondary education is to prepare the pupils for life in a democracy, the pupil should be given every opportunity to practice democracy in the civic life of the

school. Just as educators realize that a pupil can keep his health better by taking regular exercise than by reading books of hygiene, or can learn printing by doing the printing of the school better than by hearing lectures upon the subject, so, too, the pupil can gain more civic training by being given civic responsibilities in the microcosm of the school than by studying about civil government in textbooks. There is no reason why the pupil should not receive part of his civic training by "doing," just as he receives part of his vocational or his health training in this way.

The gravest defect in democracies has always been their inefficiency, the waste in time and resources that attends the perfecting of anything like an effective organization. This defect, however, is not necessarily an inherent one. As business and labor interests have been able to organize successfully, so should the civic interests of the community, and the school inevitably must be responsible for training future citizens to work efficiently through organization. That the schools can give the pupils this training is being demonstrated by the work of student co-operative organizations in several places. The tremendous possibilities of these organizations have as yet been little more than tapped. When educators fully realize the importance of giving the pupils every possible opportunity of learning citizenship by practicing it in the social situations of the school, and of helping them to learn how to work effectively through organizing the whole student body, these student co-operative organizations will become one of the most important educational forces of the modern high school. Nor need it be feared, as some would have it, that the school will build up a machine that will eventually crush the individual. The machine is dangerous only when developed for the sake of the machine. There can be no danger if efficient machinery is perfected in order to develop the individual so that he may, to the best of his ability, work with his fellow-men for the benefit of society as a whole.

See exp. form p. 174

HIGH-SCHOOL OBSERVATION WORK

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The doctrine that theory and practice ought never to be wholly separated is as old at least as the writings of Plato. No less an authority than William James has also declared that impressions can leave no complete or accurate imprints in human consciousness nor abide there permanently even in distorted forms unless they have worked themselves out in some kind of expressional response. Nevertheless, despite the teachings of ancient philosophy and modern psychology much, if not most, of the classroom instruction in high school and college today stops short with the theoretical, ideational, or impressional side of education and neglects almost entirely the expressional aspects involved in drill and in application to real life-situations. The results are that large numbers of our youths are yearly passed through our schools without any adequate mastery of the subject-matter they have studied, with little real appreciation of its import or value in making life-adjustments, and with exceedingly limited powers of actually applying school knowledge to the problems of the world's work.

Of all the divisions of the school system the college of liberal arts has doubtless failed most notably in motivating in a practical way its instruction. Indeed to do so would run counter to the very aims and purposes which, historically considered, have given rise to this type of educational institution. Knowledge for knowledge's sake has for ages been its slogan. The leading factor in justification of the teaching of any given subject within its walls has been its claim to practical uselessness. In consequence one of two policies has always dominated in the administration of the work of this school, namely, (1) to prevent so far as possible the admission of such subject-matter and such methods of instruction as smack of the utilitarian, the professional, the art of doing, or (2) (whenever these tendencies have later developed and become

prominent within any given field of knowledge) to permit the withdrawal of the department of study from the fold of the college of liberal arts and the establishment of a separate and distinct school for itself. That is to say, each subject as it has developed a tendency to depart from the more formal aspect of instruction has been checked and hampered by the administrators of coordinate departments so long as it was possible to check and hamper its re-formation and reorganization, and then, when the pressure of internal expansion has become too great to withstand, conservative hands have been lifted entirely and the former partner in liberal culture has been allowed to go its own way—though not always in peace or with a blessing.

So it has happened that law, medicine, and theology have, from early days, boldly made good their claim to a separate existence as schools in a university, and have sought openly to provide an education that includes drill, practice, and direct correlation with the world at large. So it has happened that more recently the work in engineering, architecture, forestry, and chemistry has either been set off from the college of liberal arts and organized in separate colleges or schools, or has been given a quasi-independence which is obviously merely the forerunner of complete separation.

The task of educating or training teachers in colleges and universities has for the last forty years been slowly passing through a like process of evolution. For generations normal schools for the professional training of teachers for the elementary schools have enjoyed a separate existence and have received, in general, public approval and support. They have even been accorded recognition—grudgingly, perchance—in academic circles and by collegiate and university authorities. The professional training of secondary-school teachers has, however, till recently (and to a large degree even today) been vehemently opposed by these same individuals and powers. That teachers in the college of liberal arts should themselves be expected to undergo professional training of a sort that teachers in the lower schools or indeed in the higher and distinctively professional schools undergo would no doubt, if advocated before them, produce little but contemptuous laughter. For most of these the assertions that “teachers are born, not made,”

and that "whoever knows his subject can teach it," are irrefutable and final arguments that dispose, so it is sometimes held, once and for all time of the reformer who demands of both high-school and college teachers a knowledge and training in the principles, theories, and processes of the pedagogical art. By most of these academicians the admission of a department of education into the charmed circle of the college of liberal arts has been persistently opposed or, once admitted, has been as persistently attacked as being innocuous and useless. Every effort at expansion and extension of power and efficiency on the part of the department of education has in many colleges met with positive faculty disapproval—if not complete defeat. The motives of professors of education have often been challenged and their action viewed with suspicion. Public clamor for better-prepared teachers in secondary schools and colleges has frequently been scouted as "manufactured and exploited by departments of education themselves," and treated therefore as representing no true or real popular demand.

Although approximately 50 per cent of the graduates of the college of liberal arts in the coeducational universities and colleges of the land enter, temporarily at least, upon the career of teaching, the standpat group of individuals in these colleges strenuously opposes pedagogical extension that shall include adequate observational and practice work for the prospective young teachers, but, still more illogically, objects to the complete separation of the department of education from the college of liberal arts and the establishment of a school and organization of its own. The fear in the first instance seems to be that new and additional inroads will be made into the time-honored total of 120 hours of so-called liberal culture; the fear in the second case is the entire loss to the liberal arts college of more than half of the each year's Senior class. Above all else the enemies of professional training for teachers seem to object to the development and encouragement of any agency which by reason of its free discussions of contemporary aims, values, and processes of instruction tends to bring old educational customs and beliefs into ill-repute and to raise the demand that each department of learning shall ceaselessly bring its own practices into question and to reform itself.

Nevertheless, despite the concerted opposition of influential groups within college faculties, the professional training of teachers—particularly of teachers in secondary schools—has in recent years gone on apace. Departments of education have themselves recognized the inconsistencies and imperfections under which they in the past have been organizing and administering their work and have striven persistently to correct weaknesses and to make good deficiencies. Taking their cues from the moot courts of the law schools, the clinics of the medical schools, the shop and laboratory work of the colleges of engineering, dentistry, forestry, and chemistry, and the field excursions of the departments of geology, biology, and other sciences, the faculties of the departments of education have sought to provide like facilities for their students.

The observation of superior teaching carried forward under normal secondary-school conditions and the opportunity to engage under supervision in practice teaching itself have therefore come to prevail as ideals in the professional training of all young novitiates of the teaching corps. Wherever circumstances are warranting the establishment of a separate and distinct demonstration and practice school under the complete control of the university and the immediate supervision and direction of the school or department of education, that type of organization has in most cases been preferred and adopted. Wherever circumstances have been such as to prevent the establishment of a separate school or have made its establishment seem unwise or not feasible, resort has not infrequently been had to the plan of utilizing the existing local public high school as a pedagogical laboratory. Obviously, however, wherever college departments of education are large and the local public high school is relatively small, facilities for practice teaching must necessarily be wholly inadequate to accommodate all who seek the privilege—if indeed it is feasible or possible to provide such facilities for any of them. Under such circumstances the local high school can doubtless best be brought into co-operation with the university if it opens its doors to pupil-training classes for observational privileges only.

The manner, too, of conducting observation work of this kind must vary greatly among the several institutions which undertake

it. Local conditions alone must guide. The form and administration of the work must be determined by the number and size of the several groups of students seeking observational privileges, by the departments of study in the local high school available for observation, by the students' class schedules in other departments of university work, by the program of recitations in operation in the high school, and by many other contingent factors.

In order to present the problem of observation work somewhat more concretely, an outline of the plan in vogue at the University of Michigan is herewith attached. The writer is somewhat more conversant with this plan than with any other, since it has been his pleasure to have general supervision of its administration for the last two years.

In order also to judge fairly the plan of operation at Michigan, the following facts should be kept in mind, namely: Pedagogical work at Michigan is organized as a department of learning within the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts; five professors give full time to the work; there is no practice or demonstrational school under control of the University; pedagogical courses are open only to students of Junior, Senior, or graduate standing, and the "observational work" is open to none below the rank of Senior; eleven semester hours in Education are the maximum number that can (by rule of the faculty) be required for a teacher's diploma and certificate, and hence this number of hours represents the amount of professional work usually pursued by prospective teachers. Approximately 250 Seniors annually seek the teacher's diploma.

The following additional facts will further help to make clear the local situation: The Ann Arbor city high school (in which observation privileges for university students are provided) enrolls approximately 700 pupils and employs 25 teachers. Sixteen teachers selected from among the eight departments of English, Latin, German, French, history, mathematics, biology, and physics are, by agreement, subject to observational visits by university students throughout *one semester*. Each student is required to observe twenty recitation periods distributed among these teachers.

In addition to the concrete observational work at the high school eight sections in special methods (distributed over the same fields

of study as the observational work) are organized in the University itself. Each section is under the direction of a professor chosen from the special department concerned. The sections meet once a week, and the time is occupied with discussions of the principles of special instructional methods, student reports of observational visits, and analyses and solutions of pertinent queries and criticisms.

It is seen therefore (to summarize the facts) that all special-methods courses are two-headed, one aspect centering in twenty observational visits in the local city high school, the other centering in twenty university class meetings devoted to discussion of methods. Although these discussion meetings are in charge of professors not directly connected with the department of education, that department assumes general supervision of the work and indeed places the entire direction of the observational-method courses in the charge of one of its own staff. Credit gained by the successful pursuit of the work is, moreover, recorded as credit in education. The amount allowed is *one* hour.

To illustrate the character of the university end of the work the following excerpt taken from the annual announcement of courses is inserted:

4d. Observation and Special Methods in History.—Th., at 1:00. Room 105, T.H. PROFESSOR DAVIS.

Lectures, conferences, reports, readings, and discussions.

The aim of this course is to give inexperienced but prospective teachers of history an opportunity to study the special problems of the classroom and to consider the special aspects of methods involved in history teaching in secondary schools. The work will consist of lectures and exercises dealing with such topics as the aims of history teaching; the relation of history to literature, biography, and science; the sequence of the various divisions of the subject; the proportionate emphasis to be accorded different phases of history; the organization of material; the use of textbooks and notebooks; the use of outlines, maps, charts, blackboards, reference books, source material, pictures, lantern slides, and other illustrative helps; tests and examinations; reports and reviews; lesson planning; types of recitation; the art of questioning; assignment of lessons, and other topics involving the technique of the recitation.

Each student will be required to spend twenty hours during the semester observing the classroom work in the Ann Arbor High School.

The announcements of the other method courses are similar.

The administration of the concrete observational parts of the entire plan falls into four categories and may be formulated as follows:

1. A joint preliminary conference of the university professors responsible for the university class discussions and the entire body of high-school teachers whose work is to be observed. This meeting is under the direction of the professor in charge of the work as a whole. The meeting concerns itself with a discussion of purposes and plans for administering the work as a whole.

2. A preliminary two-hour meeting of each university observation group taken as a unit (English group, Latin group, etc.) with the principal of the high school and the teachers respectively teaching the subject-matter in which the particular student group is specializing. One portion of this two-hour period is devoted to a talk by the principal, outlining the general plan of the organization of the school, the class schedules, the most convenient modes of ingress and egress, the exactions that must be required of students in making observational visits, and similar pertinent topics. The entire group is then conducted over the building and made familiar with the location of classrooms, laboratories, session-rooms, cloakrooms, and the like, and incidentally have their attention called to the most satisfactory features of the structure, arrangement, and plan of the building as a whole.

The second portion of this first group-observation period is devoted to a general analysis by the teachers of the special subject concerned of the aims which they set themselves in the teaching of their courses, the general plan of organization of the departmental work, the general character of each course being offered that particular semester, the textbooks to be used, the usual daily routine, the larger features of method to be followed, the mode of testing pupils and keeping records, and what general co-operation is expected of the student observer.

3. Eighteen additional definitely scheduled observations of full sixty minutes each allotted in the following manner: (a) Several "general observations" distributed over as many types of class work within the field of specialization as opportunity permits. The purpose here is to observe as many kinds of work as possible—work

varying in respect to grade (first, second, third, fourth) and also in respect to teachers. (b) Two or more "consecutive observations" of the same class or classes. The aim here is to observe a lesson assigned and then the following day the manner in which the assignment is worked out. (c) A "group observation" wherein the same high-school recitation period is observed by the entire group of students whose specialty lies within that field. The purpose of this observation is to provide identical data for the basis of group analyses later. (d) Five or more "distributed observations" among five or more teachers hitherto not observed, who are teaching subjects not lying in the field of the university student's special interest. The object of this form of observation is to discover *by contrast* elements of good teaching applicable to one's special field. (e) Two "corrective observations" wherein the student reobserves the teachers who are teaching the subjects of his major interest. The idea here is that, having observed five or more types of teaching outside the realm of his specialty, the student, by means of the later observations, corrects his previous impressions respecting the teachers of his specialty. (f) A final "summarizing hour" wherein the entire observation group meets as at the outset of the work, but now for the purpose of receiving summarizing advice from the teachers observed, propounding such questions as seem pertinent, and formulating for themselves a unified ideal of the instructional methods to be used when placed in charge of a classroom themselves.

4. In addition to the actual observations made and the weekly university class discussions held each student is expected to keep a well-classified notebook in which he records his observations and his reactions. At the end of the entire observational period a term thesis based on these notes and containing approximately 3,000 words is demanded.

A clearer conception of the more detailed processes involved in the administration of the plan sketched above can, perhaps, best be had by a perusal of the complete mimeographed *Outline* which is followed. A copy of this *Outline* is placed in the hands of each student observer, high-school teacher, and college professor concerned with the work, and hence a basis for standardization is secured. The *Outline* is as follows:

AN OUTLINE FOR CONDUCTING HIGH-SCHOOL OBSERVATION COURSES, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, 1917

C. O. DAVIS, IN CHARGE

Office Hours: Room 102, T.H. Daily at 11:00

- I. A conference of the high-school teachers and the university instructors shall be held prior to the observation assignments at an hour to be arranged.
- II. The first observation to be made shall be made by each university class as a body at the time (and in lieu) of its *second* university class-period scheduled for the week of February 19-23. Each group will be escorted over the high-school building and aided in getting bearings and general impressions; at 4:00 o'clock each group will meet the high-school teachers designated to be observed and receive from them preliminary advice and suggestions. This discussion shall include announcements concerning:
 1. Class schedules
 2. Textbooks used
 3. Size of classes and grade of work
 4. Equipment used and its arrangement
 5. Organization of the work in each course taught
 6. Aims of each course definitely formulated
 7. Scope of work to be covered during the semester
 8. Usual daily routine
 9. Variations from routine to be expected
 10. Mode of keeping records
 11. Mode of testing
 12. Fundamental principles of discipline used
 13. What is expected of the student observer

University instructors are invited to accompany classes on this first visit to the high school, and are urged to be present at the 4:00 o'clock hour at least.

III. Organization of the observation work:

1. Introductory observation (as described above) by entire class. Week, February 19-23. Observation credits, 2.
2. General observation of teachers of major subjects. Four hours on four separate days and in four different classes. Two weeks, February 23-March 9. Observation credits, 4.
3. Consecutive observation. Two hours on two consecutive days in the same two classes. Two weeks, March 12-23. Observation credits, 4.
4. Group observation. The entire class accompanied by the university instructor to observe a special class recitation called at the hour of the usual university class meeting. Discussions to follow, led by the high-school teachers. Two weeks, March 26-April 6. Observation credits, 2. The responsible administrators of each department concerned shall be free to omit this observation hour (if circumstances

make its omission desirable) and substitute therefor *two* additional consecutive observations.

5. Distributed observations. Five hours with five teachers not previously observed. Three weeks, April 16—May 4. Observation credits, 5.
6. Corrective observation. Two hours with teachers of the major subject. Week, May 7—11. Observation credits, 2.
7. Summarizing hour, the entire class meeting together (at an hour to be arranged) with the teachers of the major subjects. Week, May 14—18. Observation credits, 1.

IV. Administration of observation:

1. No credit for the course shall be granted unless *all* observation hours are completed *as outlined*.
2. Students shall be assigned hours for observation after consultation with Professor C. O. Davis *one* week before each observation period, and *not more than five students* shall observe the same teacher at the same hour.
3. Each student shall be required to hand in, *in duplicate*, to the teacher in charge of the room observed each hour, cards giving the following data:
 - a) Student name
 - b) Date: day of month—, week—, hour—.
 - c) Teacher observed
 - d) Topic of day
 - e) Subject observed
 - f) Question (if any)
4. Students shall be required to keep notebooks with topic headings and to list observations appropriately under *each* heading *each* observation. The headings are as follows:
 - a) Physical conditions and equipment
 - b) Routine factors of administration
 - c) Instances of discipline—causes, treatment, result
 - d) Factors producing school solidarity
 - e) Lesson assignments
 - f) The recitation
 - (1) Preparation, i.e., review of past work and statement of present lesson aims
 - (2) Presentation, i.e., mode of advance and choice of material
 - (3) Association, i.e., clarifying, illustrating, comparing
 - (4) Generalization, i.e., summarizing and unifying
 - (5) Application, i.e., correlating with life-interests and testing
 - g) Helping pupils to study
 - h) The teacher's personality
 - i) Miscellaneous observations
 - j) Personal comments, questions, reflections

5. Students shall be required at the end of the course to present a thesis of 3,000 words, based on notes taken during the observations.
6. Students shall be provided with outlines and suggestive questions to guide them in observing.
7. Students are urged, some time during the semester, to visit the normal school at Ypsilanti, the high schools in Jackson, Detroit, Chelsea, Ypsilanti, or other nearby towns.
8. University instructors are to be free to conduct the university work as judgment dictates, but are expected to observe the following standards:
 - a) Attend a joint conference of the high-school teachers before the observation work is inaugurated.
 - b) Accompany (if convenient) the class on its first visit of observation, and certainly to attend the high-school teachers' introductory discussion and the group-observation hour during the first and fourth observation division outlined.
 - c) Meet the class weekly.
 - d) Seek as fully as possible to articulate and to co-ordinate the high-school and the university aspects of the course.
 - e) Require of students such written reports of the observation work as shall seem appropriate, but shall at least require the one thesis provided for above in this outline.
 - f) Hold a conference of students during the last portion of the course and invite students to propound (preferably in written forms) such pertinent questions as may occur to them.

V. Suggestions to students—what to look for:

1. Physical conditions and equipment: size of building; structure; arrangement of stairs; halls, offices, classrooms, restrooms, laboratories, shops, toilets, drinking fountains, principal's office, other offices; auditorium, session-rooms, gymnasiums, baths, lunchrooms; decoration of halls, session-rooms, classrooms; library facilities; classroom equipment; blackboards; fire escapes; lawn decoration; playgrounds.
2. General organization: size of school; number of teachers; number periods per day; length of class-periods; average number of pupils in class; length of school year; program of studies; units prescribed each year; units prescribed for graduation; curricula.
3. Routine factors of administration: conduct of pupils before school opens; passing of classes; signal bells; treatment of cases of tardiness and absence; session-room rules; assembly periods; provisions for "making up work"; stated review-periods; written tests; examinations; seating pupils; taking attendance in classroom; handling material; getting started with the recitation hours; closing the recitation hour.
4. The human element: duties exercised by the superintendent over the high school; the principal; heads of departments; ratio of men and

women teachers; teachers' personal qualities (vigor, poise, neatness, force, dress, manner, voice, enthusiasm, sympathy, tact, system, temper, grace, winsomeness, energy, dignity, humor, positiveness, sarcasm, business-like, stimulation, fairness, patience, egotism, kindness, firmness, slow, rude, nervous, etc.); pupils (age, size, degree of physical maturity, evidences of physical abnormalities, evidences of ill-health, aggressiveness, good manners, self-confidence, slyness, boldness, indifference, mental alertness, initiative, accuracy, thoroughness, perseverance, obedience, social adaptation, co-operation, truthfulness, etc.).

5. The recitation:

- a) Aim: What is each teacher trying to accomplish? Is the aim clear to all? Is it formulated in words? Was the work of the day centered in this aim? Was the aim worth while? Was the aim achieved?
- b) Content: Was the content adapted to the aim? to the pupils? Was there discrimination shown in emphasizing topics? Did the material have true social value? Were details subordinated to general notions or principles? Was the lesson choppy or correlated? Was the encyclopedic tendency noticeable? Was the lesson too long? too short?
- c) Methods: Was the teacher herself well prepared? Was she tied to the text? What incentives or inducements did she use to get interest? Did she "drive too fast or too slowly"? What place was given to setting models or ideals to copy? Was emphasis properly distributed over drill, discussion, criticism, interpretation, exposition, application, summary, and assignment? Was the questioning well done? (Give some questions that were used.) Was the class kept together in the thought-processes? How were errors corrected? How was the ill-prepared student dealt with? How was illustrative material introduced? Was more than one sense appealed to, viz.: visual, audile, tactile, motor? Was there any "taking of stock" as the lesson proceeded? What use was made of instinctive factors of attention? Was a proper summary made? Were pupils led to abstract general principles from the facts dealt with? What means were used to make associations permanent and easy to recall? Did the pupils seem satisfied with the day's work? Did they have a "good time" in a thoroughly pedagogical manner? Did pupils take notes? Did the teacher "talk too much"? Was there any "demonstration" work by the teacher before the class as a whole? Were textbook definitions insisted upon? Was the conduct of the recitation thoroughly satisfactory to you?
- d) The assignment: How and when was this made? Was it adequate? Was it clear and definite? Was the problem element used in it? Was the "continued story" idea used? Were proper associations suggested? Was any special way of attacking the assignment given? Were pupils shown how to study? Was a model or example set for them? Did the teacher take individual differences into account, and if so, how?

THE CORRELATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING WITH THE TEACHING SUCCESS OF NORMAL- SCHOOL GRADUATES

FLOYD E. MOODY

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This investigation of the relationship between school marks and the teaching success of normal-school graduates grew out of a study of the present status of vocational guidance. I believe that a proper statistical investigation of the various lines of human activity that demand special ability, whether mental or physical, will advance the movement for vocational guidance. This article presents the correlation of the school marks of 668 normal-school graduates with their salary during the sixth year of teaching experience.

The data presented in this article were gathered from the alumni records of three Illinois state normal schools, namely, the Illinois State Normal University, at Normal, the Northern Illinois State Normal School, at DeKalb, and the Western Illinois State Normal School, at Macomb. Each of these schools was visited by the writer, and the following information was obtained from the office records: (1) the date of graduation, (2) the salary and position during the sixth year after graduation, (3) the average academic grade, and (4) the average grade in theory and practice-teaching subjects of all graduates from the year 1902 to 1910 inclusive.

Our problem in this investigation is (1) to determine the coefficient of correlation of scholarship as indicated by average school marks with teaching success as indicated by salary during the sixth year after graduation, and (2) to suggest the significance of the facts revealed for the training and vocational guidance of teachers.

IMPLICATIONS AND SOURCES OF ERROR

1. *School marks.*—For most practical purposes the writer believes that school marks may be considered a measure of a stu-

dent's mental ability or capacity for academic accomplishment. But Dr. H. O. Rugg, in an investigation of teachers' marks and marking systems,¹ says, "The thought of specialists on the question indicates that teachers' marks measure ability or capacity only very indirectly and that directly they measure 'complex or blanket' abilities as accomplishment, attainment, or development." Rugg and Starch both found great variations among different individuals in marking the same paper. They also found variations to be as large within any one department or school as among different departments or schools. Dr. Rugg advocates the use of standardized scales and concrete methods of measurement as a means of securing greater uniformity with regard to what is measured by school marks.

This question of school marks has long been a big problem in school administration. At the Western Illinois State Normal School we found that during the years 1904 to 1908 the graded marking system was discarded entirely and students were simply marked passed or failed. Thus the records of this school during those years could not be used in our study. At the present time the Northern Illinois State Normal School uses a scale ranging from 1 to 10. The practice is to divide each of these units into four smaller ones by means of decimals, e.g., the marks from 7 to 8 are 7, 7.25, 7.50, 7.75, and 8.

In the accompanying charts and throughout this study the phrase "average academic mark or grade" means the arithmetic mean of all the grades through the normal course in the following subjects: mathematics, literature, science, foreign language, history, and the manual arts. Singing and drawing were omitted entirely because in most cases classes in those subjects meet only two hours per week. By "the average grade in theory and practice teaching" is meant the average or arithmetic mean of all the grades throughout the normal course in psychology, applied psychology, education, and practice teaching. The subjects included under the head of theory and practice teaching comprise from 25 to 35 per cent of the regular normal course.

¹ H. O. Rugg, "Teachers' Marks and Marking Systems," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, I, 117-40.

Before averaging the grades of the Northern Illinois State Normal School they were changed to a percentage scale by moving the decimal point one place to the right.

Number

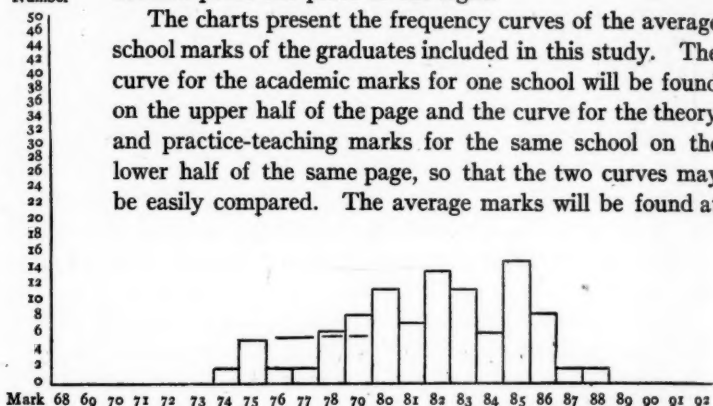


CHART I.—The average academic marks of 92 Illinois State Normal University graduates. A curve of frequency of school marks.

the base of each chart and the number of graduates receiving such marks at the left margin of the charts.

Number

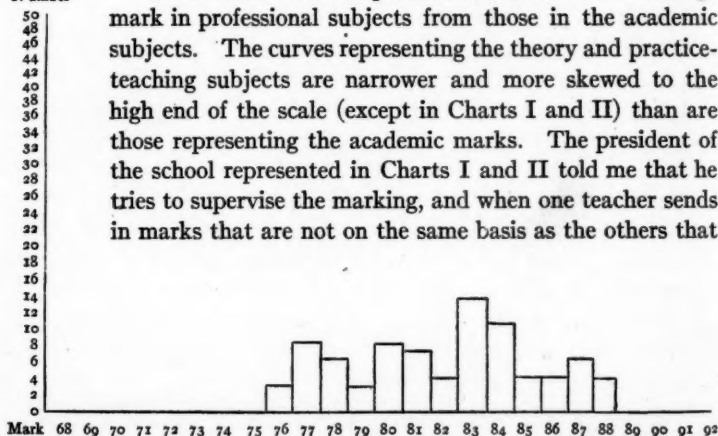


CHART II.—The average mark in theory and practice-teaching subjects of 92 Illinois State Normal University graduates. A frequency curve of school marks.

teacher is advised of the fact, and his marks that are already made out, as well as his method, are changed accordingly. The plan in this

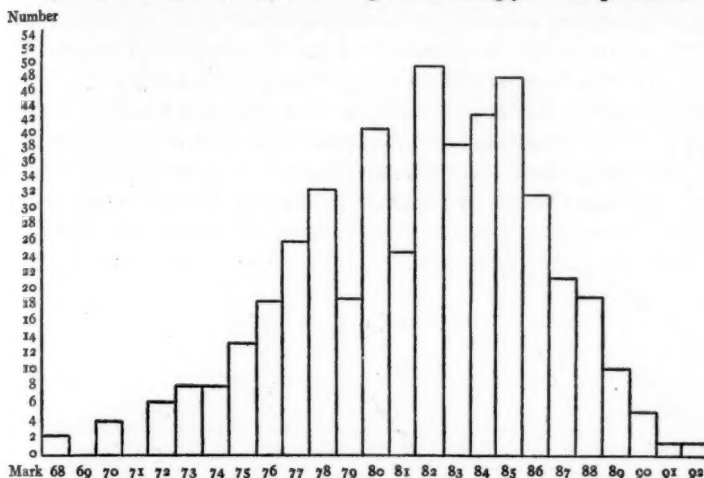


CHART III.—The average academic marks of 476 Northern Illinois State Normal school graduates. A curve of frequency of school marks.

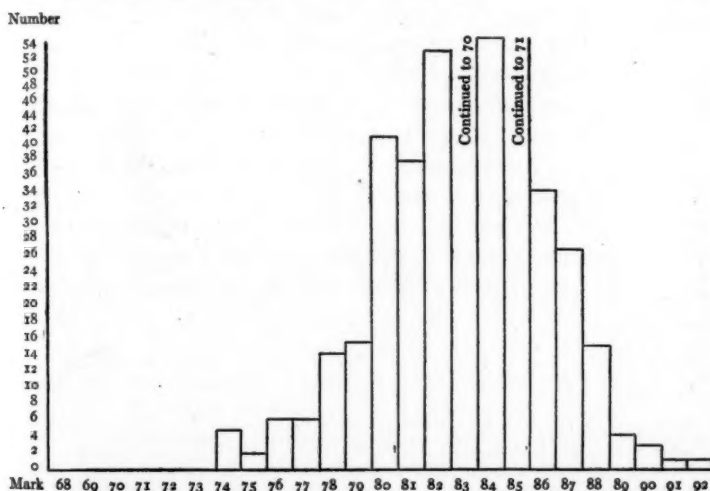


CHART IV.—The average grade in theory and practice-teaching subjects of 476 Northern Illinois State Normal School graduates. A frequency curve.

school is to use a narrow scale ranging from about 70 to 90. Each teacher is expected to distribute his marks throughout this scale and not bunch them at one end or the other unless he can give a legitimate reason for it. The individual marks at the Northern Illinois State Normal School range from 50 to 100. Charts III and IV representing this school show that the grades are distributed approximately according to the normal curve of distribution. But the fact that the marks in the professional subjects are skewed somewhat more than those in the academic subjects indicates that their scheme is not well standardized. Charts V and VI

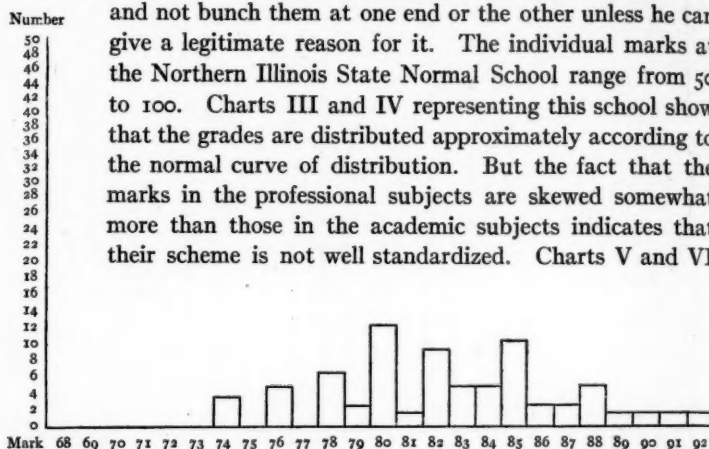


CHART V.—The average academic grades of 67 Western Illinois State Normal School graduates. A curve of frequency of the school marks.

representing the Western State Normal School show that their system is not well standardized either. The marks in the professional subjects are so badly skewed to the right that they appear as if they were based on a different scale from that of the academic grades.

On the whole, however, these average marks no doubt represent with a fair degree of accuracy the scholastic ability of these students. Each average mark represents from 25 to 40 individual marks (depending upon whether the student was enrolled in the two- or three-year course).

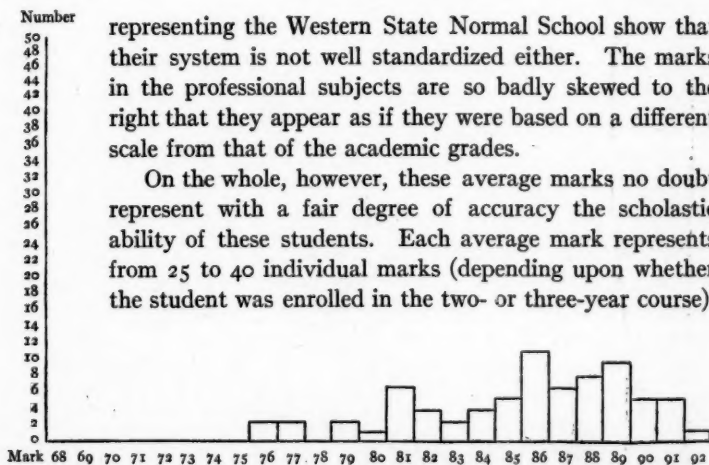


CHART VI.—The average mark in theory and practice-teaching subjects of 67 Western Illinois State Normal School graduates. A frequency curve of marks.

Each average mark in theory and practice teaching represents from 10 to 20 individual marks. In combining so many marks the errors are compensating, the high marks balancing against the low ones.

2. *Salary as a measure of teaching success.*—The amount of the average salary of graduates is taken in this study as a measure of the degree of teaching success. No doubt there are errors in this assumption that salary is an absolute measure of teaching efficiency, for there are circumstances that interfere with promotion according to merit. Some teachers will accept low salaries in order to live at or near home. In other cases favoritism and politics make abnormal conditions. Mr. Boyce, in a study of typical cities of over 10,000 population throughout the United States,¹ says that teachers are most usually rated by the unscientific general-impression method. He says, "Teaching merit is almost universally determined by some sort of rating or estimation of the value of the teacher by one or more school officers who are in a position to judge her work." From this study of typical cities he finds that the methods of rating teachers fall into two classes: (1) the general-impression method and (2) the analytical method. But in conclusion he says, "The general-impression method is doubtless characteristic of the majority of school systems and is one evidence of how little the important work of judging teaching efficiency has been systematized, rationalized, and controlled."

Because of the importance of the analytical method of rating teachers, both to our study and to the efficiency of the schools in general, the writer feels justified in summing up the important studies that have been made of it.

The analytical method is an attempt to analyze qualities of merit in teachers and rate them separately. Boyce in his study² presents a table of the frequency of the various qualities considered by 100 different school systems that use the analytical method of rating. There have been two other important studies similar to

¹ Arthur C. Boyce, "Methods for Measuring Teachers' Efficiency," *Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II.

² Arthur C. Boyce, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

that of Mr. Boyce, namely, one by Ruediger and Strayer,¹ and another by Mr. Sherman Littler.² Ruediger and Strayer made a study of the correlation of general merit with several special qualities. Mr. Littler's study was a negative one, but the results are the same as in the other studies. He made a questionnaire study of the specific reasons given by more than 200 principals and superintendents for the dismissal of teachers from their corps.

The results of these three studies are grouped and compared in the following paragraphs.

Ruediger and Strayer found a correlation of ratings of teachers in general merit with ratings in other qualities in the following order:

1. Discipline
2. Teaching skill
3. Initiative
4. Personality
5. Industry
6. Following suggestions
7. Accord or ability to get along

BOYCE'S STUDY OF 100 SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Qualities Mentioned	Frequency
1. Discipline.....	49
2. Instructional skill.....	30
3. Scholarship and education.....	30
4. Co-operation and loyalty.....	29
5. Plan and method.....	28
6. Personality.....	20
7. Professional interest.....	16
8. Manner.....	15
9. Voice.....	14
10. Daily preparation.....	13
11. Accuracy and promptness.....	12
12. Professional training.....	12
13. Attitude toward criticism.....	12
14. Appearance.....	11
15. Health.....	11
16. Routine.....	11

LITTLER'S STUDY OF FAILURE AMONG TEACHERS

Reasons for Failure	Frequency	Percent of Total
Lack of discipline.....	105	15.5
Lack of proper personality....	100	14.8
Lack of interest in work.....	71	10.5
Lack of scholarship.....	53	7.3
Lazy, no daily preparation...	48	7.1
Lack of previous preparation...	29	4.3
Lack of instructional skill....	29	4.3
Lack of pedagogical training...	26	3.8
Failure to co-operate.....	25	3.7
Not progressive.....	23	3.4
Lack of tact or common sense	22	3.2
Lack of sympathy for children	22	3.2
Too young.....	19	2.8
Failure in routine.....	16	2.3
Immorality.....	12	1.8
Ill health.....	10	1.5

¹ Ruediger and Strayer, "Qualities of Merit in Elementary-School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Psychology* (May, 1910), pp. 273-78.

² Sherman Littler, "Causes of Failure in Elementary-School Teachers," *School and Home Education*, March, 1914.

BOYCE'S STUDY OF 100 SCHOOL
SYSTEMS—ContinuedLITTLER'S STUDY OF FAILURE
AMONG TEACHERS—Continued

Qualities Mentioned	Frequency	Reasons for Failure	Frequency	Percent of Total	
17. Progressiveness.....	10	"Soft pedagogy".....	7	1.1	
18. Attitude toward work.....	10	General incompetency.....	7	1.1	
19. Attitude toward pupils.....	10	No aim in the work.....	3	0.4	
20. Character.....	9	Too old and grown stale.....	2	0.3	
21. Tact, sympathy.....	9	Failure to get results.....	1	0.1	
22. Skill in questioning.....	9	False conception of success..	1	0.1	
23. Personal influence.....	9	Clamoring for fads in text-			
24. Housekeeping.....	8	books.....	1	0.1	
25. Results in teaching.....	8	Combination of causes.....	44	6.2	
				99.4	

If the first seven or eight points in each of these studies are compared, it will be seen that they are almost exactly the same. With so nearly the same results secured in three altogether different ways we may conclude that in the minds of school officials these qualities are most important for teaching success.

The significance of these results for our study is that teaching skill, preparation, and scholarship are each given a prominent place among qualities that make for teaching success. It appears that these attainments are first necessary, but that there are others that are very important and greatly enhance teaching efficiency.

Turning back to our question of salary as a measure of teaching efficiency, the question still confronts us as to whether salary corresponds with merit among teachers. To my knowledge no extensive scientific studies of this subject have been made, but Ruediger and Strayer in their study of the qualities of merit in teachers found a correlation between the two. They requested several of their friends who were principals to rate their teachers in various qualities and also to state the salaries of the teachers. They make the following statement concerning the results of this investigation: "The distribution of salaries appears to correspond closely with the distribution of teaching merit." In their study of five school systems they found the distribution of the average salaries per month for each grade, beginning with the first, to be respectively \$70, \$62, \$61, \$58, \$63, \$64, \$73, and \$77. These salaries, they say, "make a saddle back corresponding to that made by the distribution of the best teachers."

One would logically suppose that teachers' salaries are based upon teaching merit. There is no doubt a very strong tendency in that direction, but Professor Ruediger says:¹ "The primary basis for the promotion of teachers, both in salary and position, in American cities has in the past been, and virtually still is, length of service. . . . In recent years, however, some form of a merit system of promotion has been adopted in many cities." He continues that in ascertaining the merit of teachers two bases are used, namely, (1) classroom efficiency and (2) growth in professional knowledge as measured by promotional examinations. But when Professor Ruediger says that the basis of promotion in American cities is length of service he is referring to the large cities, for he uses them as illustrations in this connection. Most of the larger cities have regular salary schedules providing for the increase of teachers' salaries at a uniform rate each year. But about 90 per cent of the teachers in *our* study are located during the sixth year after graduation in cities of less than 30,000 population, more than 70 per cent are located in cities of less than 20,000 population, and 57.33 per cent are in cities of less than 10,000 population (see Table IA).

TABLE IA
THE SIZE OF THE CITIES IN WHICH NORMAL-SCHOOL GRADUATES ARE LOCATED

Population of City or Town	Number of Teachers	Percentage	Population of City or Town	Number of Teachers	Percentage
100,000 and above	35	8.20	40,000-44,000...	6	1.50
95,000-99,000...			35,000-39,000...	5	1.30
90,000-94,000...			30,000-34,000...	12	2.76
85,000-89,000...			25,000-29,000...	14	3.22
80,000-84,000...	1	0.23	20,000-24,000...	30	6.90
75,000-79,000...			15,000-19,000...	23	5.30
70,000-74,000...	1	0.23	10,000-14,000...	34	7.80
65,000-69,000...	1	0.23	5,000-9,000...	63	14.50
60,000-64,000...	1	0.23	2,500-4,000...	63	14.50
55,000-59,000...	1	0.23	Less than 2,500...	122	28.33
50,000-54,000...	2	0.46			
45,000-49,000...	13	3.00	Totals....	427	98.84

In these smaller cities teachers are as a rule placed more upon their merit when promotion and renewal of contracts are being considered. This is possible in the smaller towns and cities because

¹ William C. Ruediger, *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*. United States Bulletin, 1911, No. 3.

there the superintendent and board come more into personal contact with the teachers and therefore are better able to judge as to their efficiency. In the small cities and towns, therefore, where the majority of the teachers in our study are located, salary is probably governed principally by the efficiency of the teacher.

Table IA shows the size of the cities in which the normal-school graduates of our study were located during the sixth year after their graduation. The number of graduates in these cities of various sizes may be influenced by the number of these various sizes in existence. Some of the larger cities also have training schools of their own from which they draw many of their teachers.

Table IA indicates that most of the Illinois state normal-school graduates are employed in the smaller towns and cities. Therefore the larger cities must get their teachers from some other source than the state normal schools. These conditions are probably more apparent than real, however, for there are many times more smaller towns and cities than larger ones. But, on the other hand, the large cities employ many more teachers than do the small towns. The larger cities, however, often secure many of their teachers from their own training schools. It is also probable that the entrance examinations in the larger city systems are prohibitive to many normal-school graduates. Therefore college and university graduates are more often chosen for positions in these cities except where there are city normal schools.

The bearing of these facts upon our discussion is that the teachers included in this study are teaching in small towns and cities. In these cities the school administrators and officers do not attempt to train and retain teachers in service, but they do attempt to ascertain their merit when they are considering promotion or employment of teachers.

In taking salary as a measure of teaching efficiency we shall use the annual salary during the sixth year after graduation. The reasons for doing this are as follows: First, Professor Ruediger in an extensive study of *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service* concludes as follows: "From the figures as a whole one may infer that a teacher in the grades reaches first-class efficiency in about five years, that he maintains this efficiency for about twenty

years, and that after about twenty-five years of service he begins to decline."¹ Since the grade teacher reaches first-class efficiency after about five years of teaching experience, salaries do not change so fast after that time, for Professor Ruediger also uses salary as a measure of efficiency. It is therefore to be inferred from Ruediger's study that if there are increases in salary after the fifth or sixth year of service they are more likely to be based upon length of service than upon merit and are therefore not so valuable for our study. A second reason for using salary during the sixth year after graduation was because it was more convenient to use the salary as soon after graduation as possible so long as its value as a measure of teaching efficiency was not diminished.

Summing up, in this discussion of the problems and sources of error in this study, we have endeavored to show, first, that average school marks are a fairly accurate measure of mental and scholastic ability; secondly, that the amount of salary received is a measure of teaching success. Salary is the value that society places upon the individual teacher.

THE CORRELATION OF SCHOOL MARKS OF NORMAL-SCHOOL GRADUATES WITH THEIR SALARY

Correlation Tables III and VI will be found complete with the work of computing the correlation coefficients and other statistical relations. The correlation coefficient and probable error may be found at the lower right-hand corner of each table. The object in presenting the tables in this form is to allow the reader access to the complete original data from which the conclusions are drawn.

The tables have been arranged and the Pearson coefficient computed for men and women separately, because the results would be of little value if such a heterogeneous mass of material were thrown together. The product moment formula

$$r = \frac{\sum XY}{N\sigma_x\sigma_y}$$

is used exclusively throughout this study. The diagonal line found in each table is the line of the means. The average school marks may be found at the top of each table, and the yearly salary during

¹ William C. Ruediger, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

TABLE VI
CORRELATION OF THE SALARY OF NORMAL-SCHOOL GRADUATES DURING THE SIXTH YEAR AFTER GRADUATION, WITH THEIR AVERAGE
GRADE IN METHODS AND PRACTICE TEACHING, RECEIVED WHILE ATTENDING NORMAL SCHOOL
(MEN GRADUATES OF THREE ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS)

Salary	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	f.	Unit of Dev	f.d.	f.d.*	$\Sigma f.d.*$ +
\$2,000 and up																						3	8	24	192	56
1,800-1,999																						1	7	7	49	14
1,600-1,799																						2	0	12	71	48
1,400-1,599																						1	5	5	15	-10
1,200-1,399																						5	4	20	80	8
1,000-1,199																						13	3	30	117	30
800-999																						4	2	8	16	36
600-799																						11	1	11	11	-10
400-599																						13	0	130		
200-399																						11	-1	-11	11	-10
100-199																						14	-2	-20	50	16
50-99																						16	-3	-48	144	-31
25-49																						0	-4	-36	144	119
10-24																						4	-5	-20	100	35
5-9																						107	-143	1,617	1,617-31=94	
Total																										
United Dev.																										
f.d.																										
f.d.*																										

$C_p = -0.157$ $C_s = 0.243$
 $\sigma_p = 3.078$ $\sigma_s = 3.432$
 $r = 0.25$
 $P.E. = 0.0033$

the sixth year after graduation may be found at the left-hand column of the tables.

This being an extract from a more extensive study, Tables I and II, IV and V, VII, VIII, and IX, and XI, XII, and XIII are omitted from this article, but the summaries of each of these tables will be included as in the original study.

In Table I of the summary tables the correlation is high enough to indicate a rather close relation between high salary and high-school marks. In Table II, however, the correlation is so small in comparison with the P.E. that it is practically valueless. In Tables III and VI we have the data for 107 men graduates from the three normal schools combined.

SUMMARY TABLES

TABLE	SCHOOL	r	P.E.
Academic Subjects			
I.....	State Normal University.....	0.44	0.0800
II.....	Northern State Normal School.....	0.17	0.0935
III.....	All schools combined.....	0.35	0.0580
Theory and Practice-Teaching Subjects			
IV.....	State Normal University.....	0.52	0.0780
V.....	Northern State Normal School.....	0.17	0.0935
VI.....	All schools combined.....	0.25	0.0623

One would naturally expect the degree of correlation to be much higher with marks in the professional subjects than with those in the regular academic subjects. This is true in Table IV, but not in Tables V and VI. These variations in the degree of correlation may be partly explained by the methods of grading in the different schools. By observing correlation Table VI it will be noted that all the cases except 20 fall between the points 80 and 88 on the marking scale. In Charts I to VI of this study curves of the average marks for each of the schools are plotted. Attention has been called to the fact that these charts show that marks in theory and practice teaching are bunched and skewed to the high end of the scale in the curves for the Northern and Western State Normal

schools. Therefore the cause of these low correlations is no doubt partly due to poorly standardized marking systems. In the State Normal University, where the marking system probably has been better standardized and supervised,¹ the distribution of marks in the professional subjects corresponds more nearly with those for the academic subjects (see Charts I to VI). It is evident from this study that teachers' marks are not reliable unless they are supervised and standardized.

Another fact of interest to be gathered from the correlation tables is that the chances of success are just as great for students who receive marks of about 85 or 86 per cent as for those who receive 90 per cent or above. This is indicated by the fact that the line of the means does not rise with any regularity after the 85 per cent mark is reached. It is a common saying, I think, that often some of the very best students are not successful in practical life. This, I believe, is partly corroborated by these charts.

Tables X and XIV present the correlation of the school marks of 527 women graduates of Illinois state normal schools with their salary during the sixth year after graduation.

In the tables for the women graduates the correlation coefficients are much more uniform than for the men. This is probably due to the fact that there is a much larger number of cases of women than of men for each school. The coefficients are a little higher for Tables XI and XII than for the corresponding tables in academic subjects, but not enough to be of any significance.

A question that will be asked concerning these results is why the correlation is so low. In attempting to answer this we would refer the reader to the correlation tables themselves. A glance at them will show that they are more significant than the correlation coefficients would indicate. It is easily observed that there is a high correlation between low marks and low salaries, but that there is no such regularity between high marks and high salaries. The former condition is due, I think, to the fact that proper preparation and scholarship are so important to the teacher that the lack of them

¹ President Felmley, of the State Normal University, says that he supervises personally the marking system in that school, and that if a teacher turns in grades that are not according to standard an explanation must be made or else the grades are immediately changed to standard by him and the teacher who turned in the grades.

TABLE X
CORRELATION OF THE SALARY OF NORMAL-SCHOOL GRADUATES DURING THE SIXTEEN YEARS AFTER GRADUATION,
WITH THE ACADEMIC GRADES THAT THEY RECEIVED WHILE ATTENDING NORMAL SCHOOL
(WOMEN GRADUATES OF THREE ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS)

Salary	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	Unit Dev.	f.	f.d.	f.d. ²
\$1,400-\$1,440																						1	14	14	196
1,350-1,390																						1	13	13	169
1,300-1,340																						2	12	24	288
1,250-1,290																						1	11	11	121
1,200-1,240																						7	10	70	700
1,150-1,190																						3	9	27	243
1,100-1,140																						6	8	48	384
1,050-1,090																						6	7	42	304
1,000-1,040																						18	6	108	648
950-990																						13	5	95	395
900-940																						10	4	104	416
850-890																						16	3	48	144
800-840																						31	2	61	124
750-790																						48	1	48	48
700-740																									
650-690																									
600-640																									
550-590																									
500-540																									
450-490																									
400-440																									
350-390																									
Totals	10	10	8	16	20	24	40	24	53	27	60	44	37	28	21	23	9	5	1	1	1	51	0	584	
Unit Dev.	-10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10				
f.d.	-100	-90	-64	-49	-36	-25	-16	-9	-4	-1	0	1	4	9	16	25	36	49	64	81	100				
f.d. ²	1,000	810	512	284	160	90	40	16	4	1	0	1	4	9	16	25	36	49	64	81	100				

$C_y = 0.2476$
 $C_x = 0.3654$
 $\sigma_y = 3.0095$
 $\sigma_x = 4.115$
 $r = 0.25$
 $E = 0.0275$

$C_y = 0.2476$
 $C_x = 0.3654$
 $\sigma_y = 3.0095$
 $\sigma_x = 4.115$
 $r = 0.25$
 $E = 0.0275$

$C_y = 0.2476$ $C_x = 0.3624$
 $r = 0.35$
 $P.E. = 0.0275$

TABLE XIV
CORRELATION OF THE SALARY OF NORMAL-SCHOOL GRADUATES DURING THE SIXTH YEAR OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE, WITH THEIR
AVERAGE GRADE IN METHODS AND PRACTICE TEACHING RECEIVED WHEN ATTENDING NORMAL SCHOOL
(WOMEN GRADUATES OF THREE ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS)

Salary	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	f.	Unit of Dev.	L.D.	L.D. ²	X.Y. +				
1,400-\$1,449																						1	14	14	196					
1,350-1,399																						2	13	13	169					
1,300-1,349																						2	12	12	144					
1,250-1,299																						1	11	11	121	-12				
1,200-1,249																						7	10	70	700	330				
1,150-1,199																						3	9	27	243	63				
1,100-1,149																						6	8	48	384	56				
1,050-1,099																						6	7	42	294	84				
1,000-1,049																						13	5	168	648	186				
950-999																						13	5	65	325	35				
900-949																						16	4	104	416	116				
850-899																						3	3	48	144	-15				
800-849																						31	3	63	121	10				
750-799																						48	1	48	48	30				
700-749																						51	0	684						
650-699																						80	-1	-40	40	-28				
600-649																						96	-2	-192	384	106				
550-599																						68	-3	-204	612	84				
500-549																						40	-4	-160	784	304				
450-499																						30	-5	-145	725	115				
400-449																						5	-6	-30	286	114				
350-399																						1	-7	-7	49	-21				
Totals																						1	537	-831	6,885	1,537	-76	1,101	
United Dev.																						7	8	0					
L.D.																						646								
L.D. ²																						402								

$C_{xy} = -0.2476$
 $C_x = 0.0260$
 $C_y = 3.0095$
 $r = 0.25$
 $P.E. = 0.0275$

usually precludes success in the teaching profession. We do not mean by this that there is no chance for the student with low marks to succeed. If he has the proper industry and other qualities, he may succeed in spite of low scholarship as indicated by school marks. On the other hand, from the indication of the charts, there are many who are successful in securing high-school marks, but who fail in the teaching profession. This is probably due to the fact that they lack some of the other fundamental qualities that make for success in teaching.

SUMMARY TABLE

TABLE	SCHOOL	r	P.E.
Academic Subjects			
VII.....	State Normal University.....	0.30	0.0868
VIII.....	Northern State Normal School.....	0.25	0.0304
IX.....	Western State Normal School.....	0.38	0.0863
X.....	All schools combined.....	0.25	0.0275
Theory and Practice-Teaching Subjects			
XI.....	State Normal University.....	0.33	0.0846
XII.....	Northern State Normal School.....	0.25	0.0297
XIII.....	Western State Normal School.....	0.36	0.0863
XIV.....	All schools combined.....	0.25	0.0275

These correlations are no doubt also affected by the present unsystematic and unscientific methods of rating and promoting of teachers that prevail in the majority of our city systems. From the three studies of qualities of merit in teachers, summarized in this study, school systems should formulate a scientific method of analyzing, rating, and improving qualities of merit in teachers. This should be done, first, to secure justice to the teachers themselves, and, secondly, in behalf of efficiency in our schools. The degree of correlation would probably be higher also if within each school the teachers' methods of marking were better standardized and supervised. The frequency curves of the marks of the different schools show that this is done better in some schools than in others. It therefore could be done in all.

Though the degree of correlation is not high, nevertheless there is a definite consistent correlation of between .25 and .35 with a

probable error of about 0.029. From these figures and from the tables the writer concludes that though scholarship is necessary it does not insure teaching success.

These findings should be of value to the vocational guidance of teachers. The tables indicate that the chances for success in the profession are very much more favorable for students with high marks. They also indicate that there are other qualities besides scholarship that make for teaching success. By analyzing the more fundamental of these other qualities, such as personality, tact, professional interest, and co-operation and loyalty, etc., and training and rating students in them during their school course, we should be able with a fair degree of accuracy to advise students as to their probable success in the teaching profession. I believe that there is legitimate ground for attempting to develop these qualities. Professor Bobbitt says that the civilized man is different from the savage; thus, he continues, if personality is made more attractive and forceful by general education and civilization it should be possible by specific analysis and training to develop these qualities still further.

THE NEED OF BROAD-GAUGE COURSES IN GEOGRAPHY

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THE PREVAILING IGNORANCE OF GEOGRAPHY

Every teacher in college or normal school who has had occasion to give courses which presupposed a knowledge of elementary geography on the part of his students has found that this knowledge could not be counted upon. A professor of economic geography in one of our large universities said some years ago that he found it necessary to give a course in grade-school geography in his university before he could proceed with the advanced phases of geography with which his own courses were supposed to deal. Repeated examinations in elementary geography given to entering classes in the University of Wisconsin show that a large majority of the Freshmen are surprisingly uncertain about most of the things taught in grade-school geography. It is not uncommon to find that a considerable proportion of the Freshmen cannot indicate correctly over half of the states of the Union, when they are given an outline map of the United States showing the state boundaries. Given an outline map, very few students can locate with even approximate accuracy the dozen largest cities of their own country. When tested upon a list of say fifty of the most important cities of the world, the majority of the students cannot tell even in what country one-half of these cities are located.

I gave a test of this character to a class of 250 students recently. Among the questions asked was this one: "Give your estimate of the approximate area (1) of your own state, (2) of Japan, (3) of the United States, (4) of the British Isles, and (5) of Germany." It was not expected that the students would know the areas of any of these geographical units. The only purpose of the question was to discover whether they really had any basis for intelligently estimating areas of important countries. Answers varied to an

unbelievable extent. For example, one student answered that the British Isles have an area of 1,000 square miles, while a classmate estimated it at 10,000,000 square miles. One student estimated the area of the United States at 15,000 square miles, another at 15,000,000 square miles, another at 75,000,000, and another at 110,000,000. One student estimated Japan at 750 square miles, another at 10,000,000, and another at 40,000,000.

Another question in the test referred to asked for estimates of distances between certain large cities. Again, it was not expected that any considerable degree of accuracy would be shown, yet one student estimated the distance between Chicago and New Orleans at 210 miles, while another student in the same class estimated it at 19,000 miles. One student estimated the distance from New York to Liverpool at 600 miles, another at 20,000 miles; similar variations existed throughout the answers. One question asked was: "In what country is each of the following: Buenos Aires, Antwerp, Calcutta, Venice, and Halifax?" It is to be noted that all that was asked was to tell *in what country* these cities are, nothing more. Notwithstanding the fact that Buenos Aires is one of the largest cities of the world, and the largest city in the Southern Hemisphere, a majority of these collegians could not tell even in what country it is located. A river of such historical importance as the Tiber was placed in Asia, France, India, Palestine, Africa, Siberia, Persia, and Arabia.

Similar tests have been given in other universities and in normal schools, and the reports of these have come to my attention; all of them indicate the same absence of reliable knowledge of geography on the part of the students. Nor is the lack of knowledge confined simply to place-geography. The majority of the students whom I have tested cannot correctly distinguish between latitude and longitude. Rarely do I find a student who knows the causes for the change of seasons. In a recent test over 40 per cent of the students said that Alaska is *southwest* of the north pole. Most students seem to understand that all parts of the frigid zones have six months of day and six months of night. Although Pennsylvania produces practically no iron ore, students seem to believe that Pennsylvania is still our great source of iron ore; only about

15 per cent of the students who took the test referred to were aware that Minnesota is our foremost state in the production of this commodity—in fact, produces more than half of all the iron ore mined in this country. These are only a few examples.

It makes little difference what sort of questions are asked, the uncertainty and inaccuracy of the student's knowledge of geography seems to be the same. This statement is not made in a fault-finding attitude. From many years' experience in supervising grade- and high-school work, I am convinced that the teachers in these schools try with utmost conscientiousness to teach their subjects effectively. They do their work, on the whole, as well as college teachers do theirs.

CAUSE OF THE UNSATISFACTORY CONDITION

The cause of the unsatisfactory condition of students' geographical knowledge is quite clear. Pupils in the grades study geography almost entirely from books. They study statements and facts which are quite removed from the child's world. A large part of the geographical knowledge obtained in the grades is not called into immediate use and is soon forgotten.

An examination was given in a survey of geography teaching in Boston in 1916. The same examination was given to eighth-grade pupils, high-school pupils, and normal-school students. In a number of the questions the grade-school pupils did better than the normal-school students, although the latter were about to become teachers of geography.

The fact is that elementary geography is, almost of necessity, a study that appeals mainly to the memory, and the facts of geography learned in the grade school are soon forgotten. The pupils are immature when they learn these facts and do not appreciate their bearing or relationships. They have not the experience or general knowledge to grasp the real meaning of most of the geographical information which they temporarily possess. Unless they have occasion to use this knowledge in high school, or have it supplemented by a geographical course in high school, they pass on into higher institutions or into active life with a highly attenuated knowledge of the geography of their own country and of the world.

THE NEED OF ADEQUATE INSTRUCTION IN GEOGRAPHY

The present war has drawn our attention to many changes which we shall want to make in the near future. The American people are thinking about world-affairs and national policies as they never have before. They are already consulting maps and atlases and gazetteers with an interest never before manifested in this country. Thousands of American people are now deeply interested in parts of the world in which they had no interest prior to this war; and studiously inclined people are reading textbooks of geography in order to be better informed along the lines of these interests.

The war is expanding our horizon, and the degree of provincialism which has characterized us will not continue. Our financial, commercial, and political interests in every part of the world are going to increase year by year. The unexpected friendship shown by our sister-republics of South America in coming to our moral support in this war is sure to give us more interest in South America and a more sympathetic attitude toward South Americans. The Balkan States, Turkey, and Italy are coming to be more than mere names to us. Hundreds of our young men must be trained for consular positions or for positions as representatives of American manufacturers in foreign lands. A country with the enormous resources and energies of the United States is bound to expand its interests into every part of the earth. There was never a time in our history when geographical knowledge was more needed than it is now and will be in years to come.

Geographical knowledge is an integral part of one's equipment for life. This is recognized in every civilized country, for geography is a required branch of study in the elementary schools of every land that has schools. In the leading European countries geography is taught throughout the years corresponding to our high-school period. In America we have been content with offering an optional course in physical geography and possibly one in commercial geography. Physical geography seems to be declining in favor, while commercial geography is advancing in favor in American high schools, yet every experienced school man realizes that commercial geography may be a very empty and unprofitable

branch, particularly if it consists in memorizing pages of facts about products, exports, imports, and the like. All geographers recognize that the type of geography that is of worth is that which trains students in *understanding* the significant facts of geography and the underlying reasons for them. The kind of geography that the man of affairs or the man of scholarly pursuits uses every week of his life is a knowledge of the governments, cities, peoples, resources, and industries of the important nations of the world. Everybody grants that a high-school course should provide historical studies, literary studies, and scientific studies. Most people will also grant that the high-school course should provide geographical instruction, and perhaps require all students to take at least a minimum amount of it. Thoughtful men and women want to know, are really anxious to know, more about Russia, to have a better understanding of Japan, India, China, Canada, Australia, Argentina, Brazil. Every person who reads the current periodicals would welcome a better knowledge of the resources, of the industries, and of the peoples of European lands and of South America.

THE KIND OF GEOGRAPHY NEEDED

The kind of geography which the demands of life call for is a sort of politico-economic geography of the nations which constitute the dominant powers or the rising powers of the world. We want our children to come out of the schools with more knowledge of these things than we obtained. I believe that if we were to call into conference a thousand intelligent parents from all parts of this country and ask them, "Would you like to have your sons and daughters given a thorough course in the geography of the world?" we should get the answer "Yes" from more than 90 per cent of them.

The time is ripe for giving increased attention in the high schools to a broad-gauge course in geography. Such a study gives breadth of outlook, breadth of interest, breadth of sympathy, and it contributes materially to good citizenship. It enables us to understand better what we read, it qualifies us to converse more intelligently and to listen to lectures and sermons and addresses with more appreciation. It adds, in short, an essential element

of an all-around education. In my judgment the move which is now under way supported by the National Council of Geography Teachers is going to grow into a national movement for the strengthening and improving of geographical instruction in the schools, particularly instruction in the secondary school which comes at a time when pupils are old enough to understand and appreciate more fully than they possibly could do in the grade schools the real meaning of the geographical ideas which are taught to them. I believe that this movement will receive support from every part of the land, from school men, from professional men and from business men alike.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

IN HONOR OF CHARLES HUGHES JOHNSON

The December issue of *Educational Administration and Supervision* is very fittingly devoted to a memorial number in honor of its managing editor, whose untimely death occurred last fall. Just forty years of age when he died, Mr. Charles Hughes Johnson had already completed a varied and successful career as an educator and was entering upon a period of still more conspicuous leadership in the educational movements of the day. The inestimable loss is well voiced by Professor Paul H. Hanus:

His sympathetic nature and his clear and vigorous mind made him a valued friend. The volume and quality of his work as teacher, author, and editor were remarkable and constitute a volume of effective industry. His colleagues in the field of university work in education throughout the country will miss him greatly and will never cease to regret his early removal from their midst; but we shall always cherish the friendship he gave us and the stimulating example of his industrious and fruitful career.

END OF THE GARY PLAN IN NEW YORK

In administering the oath of office to the Board of Education's seven members, Mayor Hylan pronounced the doom of the Gary system.

In appointing you to the Board of Education I have neither asked nor have I expected any pledge to do or not to do any particular thing, nor to favor any particular plan or device of school administration except the elimination of the so-called Gary system and the erection of new schools as soon as possible, all of which was pledged in the platform upon which I was elected, which is a mandate to carry out this pledge.

The people of this city elected a new administration to do three things for the schools—eliminate the Gary plan, build more schoolhouses, so that every child might properly be accommodated, and reduce part time. Betterment of the schooling of our children underlies all three.

Of the \$19,000,000 set aside for the extension of the Gary Plan, about \$6,000,000 is as yet unexpended. All contracts not actually entered into are stopped. No more money will go into the system, and schools are being "De-Gary-ized."

THE JUNIOR HIGH IN NEW YORK

In a plea for the reorganization of the school system of Greater New York, President Arthur S. Somers of the Board of Education recently said:

We have tried, and we have failed in trying, to keep all children in the same path for the eight years of schooling. Not finding there the road that was to lead them where they wanted to go, they went out to find it for themselves—in other schools, where they paid for their tutoring, or in business. How long are we to ignore such conditions and the demonstrated results of our own experiments? How long is the desire of principals to keep a full-graded school to interfere with efficient organization of our schools?

For the first six years of the elementary school course all children may well be taught uniformly. Then the course of study should be modified in recognition of the varying needs of the children. Without undertaking to direct them along particular lines the school should offer opportunity for study in academic, commercial, or vocational subjects.

Mr. Somers submitted the following resolution, which was adopted by the Board:

That the Board of Superintendents be requested to appoint a special committee of three associate and five district superintendents to investigate and report upon the desirability and advisability of organizing our schools on the basis of a six-year elementary, a three-year intermediate, and a three-year high-school grouping.

PROVIDING SCHOOLS FOR SUMMER WORKERS

East High School, Minneapolis, is undertaking a campaign in behalf of those high-school pupils who drop their work early in the spring for farm work or other war work, pupils who are to be listed as "summer withdrawals." This program is especially timely in view of the fact that the country over shows only one-fourth of the usual $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent increase in high-school enrolment and an actual decrease in the number of boys. Miss Elizabeth Smith, director of vocational work in East High, is reaching the homes of these pupils through letters and personal visits, urging parents not to allow the temporary interruption of schooling to become permanent. Special courses and short courses will be instituted to enable children to make up what they have missed that they may re-enter their classes in full standing. Miss Smith's program, moreover, is being extended, and is capable of still further extension, to any and all children who in normal times are compelled to forego schooling in the

summer months. If the high school is in reality to be "the people's college" it may wisely modify some of its courses to accommodate young people who must work six months of every year. Why not have a six months' high school in every large city, in session from November 1 to May 1?

WAR RESOLUTIONS IN DENVER UNIVERSITY

With the desire to stimulate undergraduates to make the most of their opportunities to enrich their lives in study while in the service of the government during the continuance of the war, the members of the faculty of the College of Liberal Arts of Denver University have adopted unanimously the following resolution:

Resolved, That young men and young women in the service of the government, in connection with war work, may have any part of this work in aviation, or wireless, or engineering, or translating, or interpreting, or medical, or infantry, or artillery, or naval, or other service, which is similar or equivalent to the training given in colleges counted toward a degree in the College of Liberal Arts of the University of Denver, when properly certified by governmental authorities.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AND THE WAR

At the recent meeting of the Association of American Colleges in Chicago, President Sanford of Clark University took occasion to rap vigorously college "slackers." He characterized these young people as being contemptible enough to live in comparative idleness, using alleged intellectual pursuits as an excuse for avoiding the responsibilities of hard work. He plead vigorously for an intensified period of educational training in order that the effort to secure a degree may be made "man's work." In these times of stress the type of college student must be more serious and restrained than the college youth of today, who is often characterized by sophomoric frivolity. As a step in this direction, President Clark recommends that universally the four-year college course be shortened to three years. This shortening process accompanied by increased seriousness of effort and dignity of attainment is bound to be realized more and more. Already large numbers of universities make it possible for their most capable students to reduce the A.B. course to three years. Soon they will require what they now merely permit and urge. If we are honest we must agree with President

Sanford that a youth who cannot acquire in three years what is now secured by the average college student in four can hardly be deemed worth educating.

Along with the shortening of the traditional college course there is coming the day of the junior college. Young men and women will secure the privileges of junior college work at home with little or no expense. Pointing out that Detroit junior colleges make it possible for any properly qualified student to accomplish work parallel to the first two years in the University of Michigan, the *Detroit Free Press* thus voices the spirit of the times:

At the present time, when the enlistment of brothers and fathers makes absence from home impossible for a year or two, these schools offer an extraordinary opportunity.

For the young man of eighteen or so, the opportunity for the future is priceless. If, as is very possible, he enters the army or navy in a year, he will come back when peace is declared with his college education partially finished and with a real incentive for going on. His comrades who have not started their college course will feel perhaps that it is too late to begin, or that it would take too long to complete the necessary work. To the young man or woman who expects to study medicine the junior college affords a way of working off many of the literary requirements in what is at best a long course. The number of doctors, engineers, lawyers, teachers, who are needed is not going to grow smaller. The length of time which must be spent in pursuit of one of these professions is not going to grow less.

THE FARM CRAFT SERIES

"When the City Boy Goes to the Farm" is the title of the first lesson in "The Farm Craft Series," which is being prepared by Dean Davenport of the University of Illinois College of Agriculture and distributed free by the State Council of Defense to all high schools in Illinois. The title of the first lesson indicates the scope and purpose of the entire series, succeeding numbers of which will follow in rapid sequence during the next three months. Already the first numbers are in the hands of five thousand Chicago boys, and fifteen thousand others in the state, who have enrolled in the Boys' Working Reserve. Rightly does Dean Davenport strike first the notes of patriotism and of discipline.

The right-minded city boy can make himself useful, provided he trains himself for the purpose. Whether he fights or whether he works the same

clear-cut object must be kept constantly in view and the same iron discipline must be maintained.

The boy on the farm must be his own disciplinarian and keep himself in training not only physically but in every way if he is to be an efficient aid in food production.

One chapter of Lesson 1 is devoted to precautions. Here are some of them:

Don't get "cocky" when you have learned a few things. The road to becoming a good farmer is a long one, and there is nearly always a better way than the one you have learned.

Keep things "picked up." Know where things belong. Keep doors and gates shut, and do not expect others to pick up after you, to do your work, or to inquire whether you have fed the pigs.

Accept responsibility, and, having accepted it, do not break down.

Your faithfulness and efficiency must not depend upon your wages. No man can expect to be paid large wages until he has first shown his ability and willingness to earn more than he was paid for doing.

Be clean physically, morally, and mentally.

Be considerate of all the courtesies due your employer, not only in a business way but in a social way, while in his house. Do not track in mud. Do not talk too much. Always be a gentleman.

OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA, SCHOOLS

This city, representative of educational progress, lists the following progressive features in her school system:

1. Vocational education through cosmopolitan high schools.
2. Vocational guidance bureau.
3. Three junior high schools.
4. Special rooms for delinquent children.
5. "Opportunity" rooms for subnormal and for incorrigible pupils.
6. Promotion providing for different rates of progress.
7. Night schools for adults.
8. Day nurseries.
9. Parent-teacher associations, mothers' clubs.
10. Bureau of reference and research.
11. Junior college.
12. Advisory citizens' committees.

SPECIAL-METHODS COURSES

Fletcher H. Swift in *School and Society* for December 15, 1917, sharply arraigns the usual practices of conducting special-methods courses in our colleges and universities. He urges that many instructors, compelled to give these courses, are utterly out of sympathy with the work, are entirely without secondary-school experience, and are thoroughly incompetent to put their students, prospective teachers of English, history, mathematics, and the rest in touch with high-school problems and methods.

With considerable elaboration Swift enumerates ten qualifications requisite for instructors in these courses:

1. Sound scholarship in their special field.
2. Thorough belief in the value of their work.
3. Thorough study of psychology applied to education.
4. Mastery of the technique of teaching in high schools.
5. Knowledge of the history of education.
6. Special study of high-school methods in the field.
7. Ability to teach demonstration high-school classes.
8. A record of success conspicuous in actual high-school teaching.
9. An intimate touch with changing secondary-school conditions.
10. Primarily experimenters, not followers in the beaten track.

Of these ten qualifications Swift asserts that only the first is possessed by the departmental teachers who usually give the courses.

The *School Review* is in hearty accord with the general tenor of Swift's argument. Special-methods courses present far too valuable and indispensable opportunities to be placed in the control of incompetent and unsympathetic instructors. Moreover, whenever a college department continues to insist that "sound scholarship" is the only qualification for a secondary-school teacher there is little hope that such a department will furnish suitable instructors for special methods.

However, Swift is guilty of generalizing from a few highly untypical instances of incompetence. Contrary to the impression left by his article, almost all universities of the central and western states, at least, are growing in hearty accord with the earnest effort to train teachers and are heartily co-operating to this end. They are providing instructors who measure up admirably to the specifications named above. Again, even if Swift's conclusion were sound, little would be gained by adopting the querulous chip-on-the-shoulder attitude that breathes through the entire article.

In addition, the *School Review* cannot agree that a long and highly successful secondary-school experience is necessarily imperative. Moreover, it is at least a debatable question whether or not the special-methods instructor of college rank ought to be conducting at the same time demonstration classes in a practice high school. In spite of conspicuous examples of highly successful union of work on this order, it is at least possible that many instructors so situated might lack perspective and objectivity in the consideration of high-school problems. It is a truism to say that a competent person can more readily pass a sound judgment upon the instructional skill of another than he can of his own work. Would it not be wiser to affirm that a thorough acquaintance with high-school conditions, acquired by a moderate experience in secondary-school teaching, supplemented by a thorough study of educational theory and practice, together with a constant and thoughtful observation of high-school situations, are more likely than are Swift's demands, to properly equip a college teacher of special methods?

MODIFIED CURRICULUM IN ATHENS, OHIO, HIGH SCHOOL

R. D. Bennett, principal of Athens, Ohio, High School, reports a plan by which a wide variety of courses is offered, yet provides at the same time that each pupil's course must be well chosen and thorough.

All the subjects offered by the school are arranged in six groups, the most important, being, of course, the English course, the others, social (history and government) science, foreign languages, mathematics, and vocational.

A "major" consists of three units or three years' work selected from any one of the six groups; a "minor" consists of two years' work in any group. For example, a year of modern history and a year of American history or government will constitute a minor in history. If a half-year of ancient history and a half-year of current history are added, the student has a major in history.

Included in the sixteen units required for graduation, there must be at least two majors and two minors selected by the student—each from a different group. For example, every student must have a major, or three years' work, in English. His second major may be in history, or commercial subjects, or may be chosen from any of the other five groups. The two minors must be from two groups not used as majors. Thus a student might graduate having three years' work in English, three of history, two of vocational subjects, and two of mathematics.

The other six units are chosen with the advice and approval of the student's parents and the faculty. In any event, the student must have certain essential courses chosen from at least four important fields of study, and all selections of courses must have the approval of the student's parents and of the principal.

This method insures at least two or three consecutive years of study in each of four different lines, and effectively prevents too much scattering among electives.

SCHOOL SAVINGS BANKS

"There is great need now for the inculcation of the principles of thrift among the children of our public schools."—COMMISSIONER CLAXTON.

"One of the most glaring defects of our present educational system . . . is the lack of general and systematic training in the practice of 'thrift.'"—*Bankers Magazine*.

Start a savings bank in your high school.

Here is the record in Richmond, Virginia. The savings system established October 22, 1917, in the elementary schools and junior high schools included, on the opening day, 9,793 depositors among a total registration of 22,000 children; deposits amounted to \$1,184.38 on the *opening day*. It is predicted that the savings will amount to at least \$50,000 each year.

The system inaugurated in Richmond is simple and can best be explained by showing how it works in a single school building. The principal keeps in a loose ledger the class sheets for each room in his building. On banking days, Mondays, these class sheets are distributed to the several rooms, and about fifteen minutes is consumed by the teacher and pupils who assist her in receiving deposits. The amount is credited to the child opposite his name on the class sheet and is also entered in his bank book. When all deposits have been received and properly recorded the class sheet, together with the money, is sent to the principal, who consolidates the reports from the several rooms and deposits the total receipts for the week in a single account with the bank. The class sheets are balanced each quarter and the pupils allowed interest on even dollars. The pass books, class sheets, and other accessories are furnished by the originator of the system used and are paid for by the depository banks. J. H. Binford, assistant superintendent of schools, Richmond, will gladly furnish the name and address of the originator of the system to those who desire samples.

The John Marshall High School has recently started a savings system adapted to the departmental plan of teaching. This plan eliminates the classroom sheet and follows the usual banking customs, each student making the deposits weekly with the head of the commercial department of the school, who in turn deposits all funds as one account in the depository bank. Here the students of the commercial department balance all the individual accounts, receiving valuable experience in business methods. In the elementary schools this work falls upon the teacher of each class, though it is greatly simplified by the system used, and some help is rendered by the pupils.

EDUCATIONAL FILMS FREE

The Extension Division of the National Bureau of Visual Instruction undertakes to furnish without cost, except transportation, educational films for use on standard motion-picture machines. The films may be secured by applying to Leon A. Tashof, Assistant Director, National Bureau of Visual Instruction, Washington, D.C. Many of the one hundred and fifty films now listed aim to disclose the production and manufacture of articles in daily use, revealing the sources of supply of raw materials, the activities of factories and workshops, the conditions of labor, the machinery used, and finally the finished articles in their useful application.

Among the more attractive titles we may cite the following:

Keeping a Nation Healthy—Pure Food
Spirit of the Soil—Fertilizer
Concrete and Its Uses
A Nation's Covering—Hat Industry
The Feet of a Nation—Shoe Industry
The Silk Industry
The City Sanitary
The Value of Life—Safety First
Key of Commerce—Good Roads
National Parks
The Great Worker—Tractors
Electric Development
The Perfume of Flowers
The Silver Treasure
Curing the Cattle
The Model Dairy
A Nation's Drink—Grape Juice

The Government at Work
Making a Book
Making a Newspaper
The Story of Writing
Trampled Under Feet—Carpet Industry
Modern Banking
Nature's Substitute—Medicine
The City Progressive
Hitting the Mark—Firearms
Making of Automobiles
Story of a Loaf of Bread—Baking
Through a New Land
Farm to Home—Milk Industry
Harmony of Sweet Sound—Pianos

ANTI-FRATERNITY LAW HELD CONSTITUTIONAL

Des Moines High School fraternities have lost their fight in the district court. Judge De Graff declared the law constitutional, granting ten days, however, for appeal to the Supreme Court. Again the chief argument against fraternities appears to be their undemocratic tendencies. Said Judge De Graff:

The public school is a democratic institution, and it has been said that such societies tend to engender a spirit of caste, to promote cliques, and to foster contempt for school authority. The public school itself stands for equality, democracy, reciprocity, mutuality, co-operation, and no special privilege.

It may be that our legislature in its wisdom enacted this law believing at this stage of adolescence to permit pupils to become members of "frats" would create snobbishness and would involve the feud and evolve the fad.

At any rate, in order to curb what is said to be the evil effect of these institutions in secondary schools, laws have been enacted in Ohio, Indiana, Washington, Kansas, Illinois, and other states, either absolutely forbidding them or placing them under the control of boards of education. An examination of the cases arising under these laws and local regulations discloses that the courts of last resort in recent years have uniformly held such rules valid and constitutional.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

I. PEDAGOGICAL LITERATURE DEALING WITH HOME ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS
University of Chicago

ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF HOME ECONOMICS

There is very little material on the teaching of home economics at the present time. The few contributions in this field that have been made have taken the forms of either a personal analysis of the ideals of home economics teaching unsubstantiated by any experimental or statistical evidence or an outline of current practices in teaching with no attempt to present a constructive analysis which would lead to improved methods.

The first formal attempt to analyze the functions, methods, and results of home economics teaching was presented in the bulletins on "Education for the Home"¹ published by the Bureau of Education in 1914. These bulletins summarized the results of a questionnaire presented to the schools, both elementary and secondary, normal schools, and colleges. A large proportion of the material included in the four bulletins deals with the equipment and the organization of the subject-matter in colleges and training schools, and somewhat limited material is given on the teaching of home economics in the elementary and secondary schools. Part I includes a summary of the historical development of home economics teaching and a definition of the subject-matter, terminology, and aims and purposes of teaching. There is marked emphasis in Mr. Andrews' analysis on the vocational value of home economics training; the term "vocational training" is used in its broadest sense, for the schools are urged to train not only skilful housekeepers but homebuilders. It is interesting to compare these theoretical aims and standards with the statistical results which were obtained from the questionnaires.

This material is found in Part II and shows current practices in regard to the length of periods and courses, the type of material given, the frequency of use of different aspects of home economics, the relation of secondary schools to college entrance requirements, etc. There is much here that is very suggestive to the person interested in reconciling the aims and achievements in

¹ Benjamin R. Andrews, "Education for the Home," *United States Bureau of Education Bulletin*, Nos. 36, 37, 38, 39, 1914.

home economics teaching. There seems to be no attempt to interpret this conflicting material in this bulletin.

In the report on "Household Arts in the Cleveland Schools," presented by Miss Boughton in 1916,¹ the inadequacies and inconsistencies of the teaching in the secondary schools are outlined in some detail. Miss Boughton attributes the unsatisfactory condition found in the Cleveland schools to the failure to analyze clearly and definitely the different types of training that should be found in the technical and general high schools. With an aim that is primarily vocational the technical schools seem to fail to realize either the vocational possibilities of the subject-matter or the methods that are necessary to secure the essential technical results. The general high schools also are offering courses which, though possibly good of their kind, have no relationship to the varying social and economic needs of the girls taking the courses in the schools. While Miss Boughton's criticisms are suggestive of the necessity of seeing the work of the department in relation to the larger problems of the general needs of the girls, her absolute failure to make constructive suggestions or to analyze the failure of the courses offered in terms of teaching methods, selection of subject-matter, and relation of home economics courses to other courses in the curriculum, limits very greatly the value of her contribution to the solution of effective home economics teaching. Miss Boughton's analysis of the distinction between homemaking and housekeeping, in outlining the scope of the subject-matter of home economics to be presented in the elementary and secondary schools, is one of her best points.

During the current year there have been two books published containing material relating to home economics teaching. It was one of the subjects included in the investigation of the status of teaching of secondary-school subjects undertaken for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.² There is much suggestive material in the few pages devoted to home economics in spite of the many inadequacies and inconsistencies in the returns from the questionnaires sent to the home economics teachers. Confusion in the terms used to describe the content of courses, failure to define courses in terms of units, lack of uniformity in the content of beginning and advanced courses, were all to be seen. The chief value of this material is that it shows the need for the realization on the part of home economics teachers of a clearer definition of standards for secondary-school courses.

A chapter on the "Teaching of Home Economics" is included in *Problems of Secondary-School Education*³ by Snedden. As might be expected from

¹ Alice C. Boughton, "Household Arts and School Lunches," *Cleveland Education Survey*, No. 23, 1916.

² Leonard V. Koos, *The Administration of Secondary-School Units*. University of Chicago Press, 1917.

³ David S. Snedden, *Problems of Secondary School Education*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917.

Mr. Snedden's close relationship to vocational education, the chief point emphasized in this chapter is the distinction between the vocational and the general educational aspects of home economics. Mr. Snedden outlines some of the methods which are adapted to vocational training and urges the extension of this form of training for girls. Some of the criticisms of home economics teaching which are voiced in this article restate the points that have been noted in the previous books, namely, the failure of home economics teachers to define their aims in teaching in clearly demonstrable terms and the need for less formalism in the methods of teaching used in the classroom.

TEXTBOOKS

WELLMAN, MABLE T., *Food Study*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1917.

This is a textbook in foods planned for a half-unit course in the secondary schools. It follows the conventional method adopted by food text of being a combined laboratory manual and textbook. The organization of the course and the method of presentation of each topic are so clearly defined in Miss Wellman's book that it allows little flexibility in its use. The text material is excellent in quality and there is more of it than is found in similar books.

ROSE, MARY S. *Feeding the Family*. New York: Macmillan, 1916. Pp. xv+433.

This book was written, as its title would suggest, to give the housekeeper a simple, readable statement of the scientific facts underlying the efficient feeding of the family. This is so excellently done and the material is so well organized that *Feeding the Family* is serving a further function as a high-school reference and textbook. Mrs. Rose interprets scientific principles into such practical terms and illustrates her points with such usable tables and directions that her book is a definite contribution toward rationalizing the teaching of dietetics in the schools.

SHEAFFER, WM. A. *Household Accounting and Economics*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. ix+161.

This is an elementary book on household accounting. The account blanks and the exercises used are simplified forms adapted from bookkeeping systems. The exercises are clearly stated, easily understood, and fairly interesting. Many of them seem, however, to be given mainly to secure skill in calculation. The facts that family expenditure is not centralized on one person and that an itemized cash account is correspondingly difficult, that credit accounts are not incidental but usual and that the aim of household account keeping is to assist in analyzing the expenditures, not merely to show a financial statement.

The chapter on "Economics in the Household" is most inadequate. There is no attempt to discuss any fundamental economic principles and the material given on the basis for the division of the family income into the various items of the budget is not convincing. There are several short chapters on business forms and contracts that contain useful information.

ELLSWORTH, EVELYN PETERS. *Textiles and Costume Design*. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Co.

The book is planned as a textbook for high-school classes. It contains a brief sketch of the history of textiles and the history of costume as a background for the designing of costumes. But the organization is such that the connection between the various parts is not apparent.

Although the Table of Contents offers a rather complete treatment of the subject, the topics in general are treated too briefly even for a high-school course.

The illustrations are good but not sufficient to fulfil the purpose of the book.

The book contains some suggestions which might be useful to the high-school teacher, but it would be of doubtful value in the hands of the student.

KELLOGG, VERNON, AND TAYLOR, ALONZO E. *The Food Problem*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. xiii+212.

It is of great value at the present time to have presented in so simple and readable a form a clear statement of the world's food situation. This is particularly true when it bears the authoritative character which the official positions of the authors of this book.

The material covers two aspects of the problem. Part I outlines the food situation in the United States and Europe and discusses the extent and the methods of regulation of the food supply that are found in each country. Part II discusses the efficiency of different foods from a nutritive standpoint, the possibilities and limitations in substitution of food materials, and the accepted lines.

POWELL, OLLA. *Successful Canning and Preservation*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1917. Pp. xi+371.

This is the first book on the preservation of foods that has covered the subject in a comprehensive way, yet in so simple and descriptive a form that it is easily used. Food preservation is generally treated in our high schools as an experimental rather than a practical problem. While the emphasis placed on this subject will vary greatly with community needs, Miss Powell's book presents the household and commercial methods of preparation so clearly and with such excellent illustrations that its use as a reference book will assist in vitalizing our courses.

The scientific principles underlying food preservation are discussed clearly and adequately, and the bibliography which follows each section suggests further reference.

GIBBS, WINIFRED STUART. *The Minimum Cost of Living*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. xv+93.

This book is a careful study of the expenditures of seventy-five families. The budgets used are those from families whose expenditures have been made

under the supervision of visiting housekeepers in New York City. In addition to tabulated material which shows the actual expenditure of the individual families, Miss Gibbs discusses the reasons and general tendencies which underlie the expenditures for the different items of the budget.

Anyone who is working with family budgets from a teaching or a social viewpoint should find much suggestive and usable material in this book. The details of the food and clothing expenditures are especially valuable.

SEEDS, JOHN B. *The Household Budget*. John B. Seeds, Publisher. Pp. 246. \$1.50.

Professor Seeds's convincing presentation of the economic value of the labor of the housewife is especially valuable in the present world-situation, as he proves conclusively that household labor is essentially productive.

The analysis of the budgets of two groups of families whose incomes are respectively \$1,800 and \$2,400 a year is a valuable contribution to the literature of budget-making, as the studies in the past have been largely confined to families with a bare living wage.

His conclusions are that although economists in general recognize household activities as productive, yet none of them give it the consideration that they give to the productive labor of men or the labor of women in factories or business offices; that if we are interested in the sum total of household and national income, we must include the work of both men and women workers whenever it is done.

STERN, FRANCIS, AND SPITZ, GERTRUDE T. *Food for the Worker*. Whitcomb & Barrows, 1917. Pp. 125.

The object of this book is to present to the person who is planning a family dietary at a minimum cost a selected set of menus and recipes which will assure adequate and satisfactory meals.

It outlines a dietary plan for seven weeks for a family of five. The quantities of the different food materials and their cost, the size of individual servings, the amounts of protein, fat, and carbohydrate, the number of calories and the cost per day per person, are all carefully calculated and tabulated.

The difficulties of using ready-made menus for people with varying food habits and the very high cereal content of the meals are points to be noted in using this material.

COOPER, LENNA FRANCES. *How to Cut Food Costs*. Battle Creek, Mich.: Good Health Publishing Co. Pp. 126.

The emphasis in Miss Cooper's book, in fact the single principle about which her discussion of food costs centers, is the relative cost of foods in terms of fuel value. A table showing the number of calories procurable for one cent summarizes the discussion of each food. While there is need for a more general knowledge of the fuel costs in foods, a dietary selected on the basis of securing the greatest number of calories for the smallest expenditure would be a most inefficient one since such a basis for selection emphasizes only one aspect of

food requirement, energy needs, and ignores other equally essential requirements, such as protein, mineral matter, and other food accessories.

In the suggested menus and recipes which occupy about one-fourth of the book, Miss Cooper's prejudice toward the elimination of fish and meat in the dietary is evident. The last two chapters in the book consider the general economic problems underlying food costs. Miss Cooper quotes quite liberally for illustrative purposes from current reports. Some of these are distinctly more authoritative than others.

RICHARDS, ELLEN H., AND NORTON, JOHN F. *The Cost of Foods*. John Wiley & Sons, 1917. Pp. xi+141.

This is the revised edition of material originally published in 1901. The actual revision has been somewhat limited, consisting mainly of the addition of a five-page chapter on "Meal Planning," eight or nine tables from recent publications, and some restatements of costs in terms of current prices. The organization of the book has been unaltered.

The Cost of Foods has been used mainly as a reference book in the secondary schools. Several of the chapters such as those on "Hospital Diets" and "Food for Penal and Pauper Institutions" cover topics not considered in secondary-school dietetics. Furthermore, the organization of the book is not adapted to co-ordination with the laboratory work usually found in dietetics courses.

For the general reader this book while presenting many valuable facts in regard to foods does not give as many concrete suggestions as will be found in some of the more recent books.

PATTEE, ALIDA F. *Practical Dietetics*. New York: A. F. Pattee, 1917. Pp. xxv+502.

This book is planned as a text in dietetics for nurses. As a result it deals mainly with the subject of diet in disease. While dietetics in the high school should be primarily a study of normal nutrition, the number of textbooks on the subject has been so limited that *Practical Dietetics* has been used as a reference book in some schools. The material was originally prepared in 1903. The present edition is completely revised and incorporates much new and more scientific material. A third of the book is devoted to the preparation of foods and recipes, the only unusual feature of this section being that the calorie values of the recipes are calculated.

Chapter iii contains tables of the nutritive value of food materials in terms of common household measures and average servings. This material is useful in supplementing similar material in Rose's *Feeding the Family*. Chapters i and ii attempt to cover the subject of "Food Composition, Digestion, and Metabolism." This is so concise and contains so much material that needs a more fundamental treatment that it is obviously not adapted to students who have not had previous work in chemistry of food and nutrition. The chapters on "Hospital Diet" and "Diet in Disease" are compilations of diet lists and methods of feeding used in current medical practice. The value of the book is enhanced by the authoritative nature of this material.

KITTREDGE, MABEL HYDE. *The Home and Its Management*. New York: Century Co., 1917. Pp. 370.

An elementary book on household management. The material is not well organized for teaching purposes and includes many statements of facts and methods that are inaccurate or that are being discarded in present practice.

DONHAM, S. AGNES. *Marketing and Homework Manual*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1917. Pp. 235.

The material in this book is very elementary in character and it does not cover the two topics adequately. The only aspect of marketing that is considered is that of good selection. There is no discussion of market organization, market price, or the relation of the purchaser to market costs. Even the topic of "Good Selection" is limited in content as there is no experimental work suggested that would show the fundamental values in selection. It merely contains empirical statements of what to buy or what not to buy.

The form used in the homework manual is that of detailed definite outlines of the procedure to be used in housecleaning. There is no discussion of the fundamental principles which should be the foundation of practice.

TRYON, ROLLA MILTON. *Household Manufactures in the United States, 1640-1680. A Study in Industrial History*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. 413. \$2.00.

Professor Tryon has made a genuine contribution to our knowledge of household industry. He has so organized the material that he shows conclusively the relation of the evolution of household industry to the economic, geographical, and political forces which have determined its character. The bibliography of primary and secondary sources, the excellent index, and the carefully prepared tables supporting important statements should be of great value to all teachers of home economics and industrial history.

DOOLEY, WILLIAM H. *Vocational Mathematics for Girls*. D. C. Heath, 1917. Pp. 367. \$0.28.

This book should be of interest to all teachers of home economics because it points out the wealth of available material for teaching girls the arithmetic of everyday affairs.

Part II and Part III, "Problems of Homemaking" and "Problems in Dressmaking and Millinery," are of immediate importance to the home economics teacher. They contain an extensive collection of problems in all phases of the subject, budgets and accounts, food and dietetics, fuel, light, heat, and estimation of amounts and cost of materials for garments and hats. Some of these problems are suitable for home and some for trade, although the distinction is not sharply drawn. They are not especially well selected or classified with reference to the same economic group.

But the book is a pioneer effort and will undoubtedly receive a cordial welcome. While each section falls short of the author's intention, it is probably because it has been based on an analysis of too large a number of occupations

to make it valuable. It is suggestive and will probably lead to a critical analysis of a smaller number of occupations.

FULLER, MARY E. *Constructive Sewing*. Indianapolis: Industrial Book and Equipment Co.

The author has organized her material in a constructive sewing series of four books for the use of both teachers and pupils. Although it is evident that she appreciates the importance of the broader aspects of the subject, textiles and costume design are treated briefly and superficially.

The drafting is well presented both in relation to the human body and to the adaptation and use of commercial patterns.

By means of the students' records the pupils are made responsible for every step, thereby developing independence for the next project.

In general the books are suggestive and helpful; the illustrations of the constructive processes are numerous and excellent.

FALES, JANE. *Dressmaking*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1917. Pp. 508. \$1.50.

In adding to the few textbooks on the subject of dressmaking, Miss Fales recognizes that the study of form, color, and materials is a part of the larger aspects of the subject as well as the consideration of the technique of construction.

The book is divided into three parts. Part I deals with the historic development of costume with illustrations and descriptions of costumes in different periods. Part II is devoted to the study of textiles, one chapter being given up wholly to the subject of manufacturing and the other to textile economics or the study of the principal fibers, and textile design, with a few simple tests which can be used by the ordinary purchaser. Part III, or about seven-tenths of the book, is devoted to a very full discussion of the technical processes in dressmaking.

The present arrangement of the book is such that each part is a presentation of its particular phase and might just as well be printed in three separate pamphlets.

The discussions of form and color are so meager they do not function in the main section—dressmaking. The study of costume has no relation to the interpretation of present-day costumes. A rearrangement of subject-matter placing the discussions in designing and draping at the end of the section on historic costumes would be more logical than the present arrangement.

ALLUESIN, MAY. *Dressmaking as a Trade for Women in Massachusetts*. Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 1916. Pp. 180 (Vol. IV of "Studies in Economic Relations of Women," *Bulletin of United States Bureau of Labor Statistics*, No. 193).

An interesting, well-organized presentation of the conduct of a trade for women in Massachusetts which should prove valuable in the organization of vocational education and labor legislation in other states.

BURBANK, EMILY. *Woman as Decoration*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

This book was written in order to assist the individual to understand her own type. It is a consideration of costume, not as fashion, but as decorative line and color, which forms a design against the background of her surroundings, in her home, in the garden, on the lawn, on the beach, or wherever her activities lead her.

There is in addition a brief account of woman's part in the decorative art of the ages, as shown in Egyptian bas-reliefs, Greek vases and sculptures, Gothic stained glass windows, tapestry, Renaissance paintings, and portraits from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

The illustrations are numerous, the modern ones not being as well chosen as the older ones.

PARSONS, FRANK ALVALE. *Interior Decoration, Its Principles and Practise*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1917.

This book is written in an authoritative way by an authority on the subject. The subject is presented entirely from the art standpoint with especially good chapters on color and balance in house furnishing. It contains nothing on architecture or house planning.

The illustrations are very beautiful but rather too elaborate for practical use to the general reader.

It is a splendid book for the teacher because of the clearness with which it defines and explains the application of the abstract art principles to house furnishing. It is also a very valuable reference book for students.

ROBINSON, L. EUGENE. *Domestic Architecture*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 378. \$1.50.

To the teacher in the subject of house planning this book will prove extremely valuable as the author has collected and organized many important facts. Its organization is clear and simple. Its Table of Contents is equal to a topical outline.

It is very complete in content from the viewpoint of house planning but very meager from the viewpoint of decoration and furnishing. Its illustrations are clear, suggestive, and adequate. Additional ones on landscape gardening and interior decoration would greatly increase the value of the book.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I deals with the usual topics of house planning, such as building materials, house construction, appliances, heating, lighting, plumbing, and cost of the building.

Part II is a practical guide for house design including a drafting-room manual, problems in design, and an excellent glossary of architectural terms.

ROBERTSON, LIONEL, AND O'DONNELL, T. C. *The Healthful House*. Battle Creek, Mich.: Good Health Publishing Co., 1917. Pp. 191.

The purpose of this book is well stated in the Preface, "to emphasize the health importance of beautiful colors, beautiful lines and masses, beautiful wall and floor coverings equally with fresh air and light, to present to the reader, in

short, a house that is healthful because it satisfies the demand of hygienic and aesthetic sense alike."

It is a book which should be interesting both to the students of household sanitation and house planning. It is a good book for occasional reference. There is considerable repetition of material. The discussion of the psychological effect of color is interesting.

DYER, WALTER A. *Creators of Decorative Style*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1917.

A valuable reference book because of its clear descriptions of types and its beautiful illustrations. Its organization is extremely clear and simple from the collector's viewpoint. As to its content, the material is very full and well arranged. It has a very good combination of architecture and furniture of French and English contemporary styles and shows clearly the development of one style from another.

Its illustrations are very beautiful, clear, and abundant.

GREEN, WILLIAM BAYLISS. *The Effective Small House*. New York: Robert McBride & Co., 1917.

This book is planned for the layman and is therefore popular in its style.

The content is good and complete in general, but too much emphasis is sometimes placed upon ingenious makeshifts of a purely personal nature.

II. COMMENT ON EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

ADAMS, HENRY C. *Description of Industry*. An Introduction to Economics. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918. Pp. x+270.

The author of this book wrote it to provide a means for the correction of what to him is a vital defect in the vocational training courses as they are now taught in this country. Of these courses, he says: "Much of the vocational training in this country, whether in high schools, special commerce schools or universities, has no adequate historical or descriptive background, and on that account loses, in a large measure, its educational value." Professor Adams feels that some adequate historical and descriptive ground should precede or parallel courses in vocational training. He has presented such a background in this book in the form of a description of the world of business so as "to lead the student to an intelligent appreciation of the forces that control in the business world and to stimulate his faculty for observation by frequent reference to familiar material."

The book is made up of fifteen chapters, the discussion in each being grouped about a few big topics which are numbered consecutively throughout the volume and printed in bold-face type. The subtopics under each main topic are numbered and italicized, thus making the organization of the book stand out very clearly. The reader is never lost in the discussion, for there is an abundance of guideposts to prevent him from going astray.

The author has produced a simple and concrete description of the structure of the modern business world. In doing this he has made slight use of technical nomenclature. His work is inductive rather than deductive. The principles of the science of economics are permitted to clarify themselves through description of the industrial process. Such a treatment makes the book a valuable adjunct to courses in vocational guidance and current problems.

HANUS, PAUL H., AND OTHERS. *The Teaching of Economics in Harvard University*. A Report presented by the Division of Education at the request of the Department of Economics. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1917. Pp. xiii+238.

For one department in a university to be surveyed by another department in the same university is by no means a common occurrence. To the writer's knowledge, there has been in the history of university instruction but one such case. A few years ago at its own request the department of economics in Harvard University was elaborately surveyed by the division of education. The results of this survey have been given to the public under the foregoing title. The work certainly marks an important milestone in the history of university teaching.

The enumeration of the chapter titles which follows will give the reader an idea of the scope of the survey: "The Inspection as a Whole," "Aims in the Teaching of Economics," "Quantitative Studies from Students' Records," "Minor Studies and Proposals for Experiment," "The Questionnaires," "Method," "Marking," "Summary of Conclusions and Recommendations." Some interesting material is also included under the term "Supplements."

The limits of this review do not permit of an exposition of the contents of the foregoing chapters. It should be said, however, that the report contains at least one chapter which deserves much consideration from all college and university instructors and one chapter which deserves special consideration from teachers of economics. These chapters are the one on "Method" and the one on "The Questionnaires." The former contains a list of factors in college teaching, and the latter reports what 164 professional men, 102 business men, 9 agriculturists, 8 journalists, and 42 individuals in various other occupations think of the value of their courses in economics which they took in Harvard during their undergraduate days. These replies should be of great service to departments of economics in all colleges and universities.

The report is thoroughly scientific and will be of great value to individuals conducting similar subsequent surveys.

INGLIS, ALEXANDER. *Principles of Secondary Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. xvi+741. \$2.75.

Professor Inglis in his Preface points out that there are two methods by which a book on the *Principles of Secondary Education* can be constructed. These two methods are: the collaboration of a number of specialists in the construction of the book and the writing of the entire work by a single individual. Examples of books produced by the first method are Johnson's *The Modern*

High School and Monroe's *The Principles of Secondary Education*. Professor Inglis' book is the only worthy example of the latter method.

The volume under review is divided into three parts. Part I is devoted to a discussion of the raw material with which secondary education deals. It is made up of chapters on the physical and mental traits and individual differences of the secondary-school pupil, and the character and classification of the secondary-school population. Part II considers the character, place, and function of the secondary school as a social institution. It contains chapters on the development of secondary education in America and other countries and the relation of secondary education to elementary and higher education as well as two chapters on social principles determining secondary education and the aims and functions thereof. Part III is given over to a consideration of the means and material wherewith the aims of secondary education can be achieved. It is made up of chapters on the place of English, foreign languages, mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences, practical and vocational arts, aesthetic arts, and physical education in secondary education. It concludes with two chapters on the organization of secondary schools.

The book is not a collection of personal opinions, as is Snedden's *Problems of Secondary Education*, for which reason it is much more valuable and scientific than Snedden's book. In place of personal opinions the author supports his important statements, especially on disputed points, by reference to the opinions of specialists and to the result of impersonal investigations; by presenting the findings of specialists and limiting his personal judgment to their evaluation in synthesis; and by securing the direct criticism of specialists in the preparation of his book. In general, the author presents much of his material in the form of tables, graphs, and diagrams and is content with drawing conclusions therefrom.

The book will certainly find a place as a text in schools where a course in the principles of secondary education is taught. Besides the material given in the body of the work, at the end of each chapter one finds a number of problems for further consideration and a lengthy list of selected references. These two features make the volume much more useful as a basis for class discussions. If a teacher is seeking a text for a course in the principles of secondary education, it will be well for him to examine Professor Inglis' volume before making a final selection, for in the writer's judgment it is the most scientific work on secondary education that has appeared in recent years.

WOODLEY, O. I., AND M. VIRGINIA. *The Profession of Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. ix+325.

One has only to glance through the chapter headings of this book to see that it is not a discussion of *The Profession of Teaching*. To justify this statement the writer presents herewith the titles of the fifteen chapters: "Profession Defined," "School Ethics," "The Ultimate Aim of Education," "Happiness as Related to Education," "The Social Function of the School," "The Relation of the School to the State," "The Learning Process," "Correct Concepts

Necessary for Right Thinking," "The Teaching Process," "The Recitation," "Subject-Matter," "Vocational Education," "Vocational Guidance," "The Child's Ability Known and Utilized," "The Fundamental Concept." Judging from the array of topics covering almost every phase of education plus considerable psychology, one concludes that the authors in looking for a title to indicate the contents of their volume finally gave up in despair and concluded to let the material in the first chapter usurp this function, as is often done in books which deal with nothing in particular.

The work contains little that has not been said over and over again during the past fifteen years. One sometimes wonders when the end of such books is coming. It is to be hoped that the present high price of paper and labor will curtail the output somewhat. Such discussions are the best evidence possible to the outsider that teaching is not a profession and education is not a science. As long as young teachers are fed on the educational food found in treatises of this type, they will never develop an appetite for real scientific material, and as long as publishers are willing to supply the teaching public with works on educational subjects which haven't even the earmarks of a science, the subject of education will remain in the unscientific state in which it is now floundering in some localities.

HITCHCOCK, ALFRED M. *Composition and Rhetoric*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. x+575.¹

This volume resembles other texts by the same author in its emphasis upon practical composition. Part I contains 190 pages dealing with exercises in simple composition. The conventional phases of the subject are treated through carefully graded tasks in composition accompanied by much drill. In addition to the usual topics this section contains an interesting chapter on "Journalism" and another on "Story Telling." Part II contains over 200 pages dealing with "Words and Sentences." The treatment of these elements of composition is unlike the customary formal treatment of them. Unified lessons presenting practical difficulties and instruction in mastering them are characteristic of this section. Grammar is dealt with in the concrete. Part III, though entitled "Principles of Rhetoric," deals with what many writers call "qualities," such as "purity," "clearness," "force," "beauty," etc. I regard the author's departure from the more or less standard nomenclature as unfortunate. Part IV consists of about 100 pages devoted to a "Study of Literature." It is an effort to emphasize the possibilities of correlation of literature and rhetoric. Such correlations are frequently questionable, the principles of the two subjects being quite distinct. The present treatment testifies that an effort to unite them is forced. Literature has too long been made the tool of composition and rhetoric. The book is, notwithstanding, a usable text. The chapters themselves are arranged in unified groups, more or less independent, and for this reason it is more adaptable than most texts.

¹ This and the following review were contributed by L. V. Cavins, Fellow in Education, University of Chicago.

POWELL, JOHN WALKER. *The Confessions of a Browning Lover*. New York: The Abingdon Press, 1918. Pp. 248. \$1.00.

This book is a vigorous effort to present Browning in a light that will increase the poet's popularity. The writer claims the privilege of handling his subject as he sees fit. He disdains to be called either an annotator or a commentator. In fact, the treatment is distinctly individualistic, personal, and controversial in its character. It is the work of a theologian who sees in Browning something more than philosophy and theology. Although the writer takes the position that the beauty of Browning's poetry is substance rather than form, he reveals many artistic touches which are frequently overlooked by the ordinary reader. That the writer is a profound student of Browning and an ardent admirer is not to be doubted. His method is to cite numerous quotations found throughout the poet's works as they bear upon the main themes with which the chapters deal, such as "Of the Poet as Artist," "Of Artists and Philosophers," "Of Ideals and Forms," "Of Life and Love," etc.

The author's knowledge of literature is general and his ready application of it for critical purposes is of parallel interest to his exposition of Browning. Although his method of presentation is novel, the phases of the poet's work which he most emphasizes are in general the same as those which command the deep study and the ardent admiration of Browning lovers everywhere. The entire book is an inspiration on a high level and will be gladly welcomed by the casual reader as well as the literary critic.

DOWNING, ELLIOT ROWLAND. *The Third and Fourth Generation*.¹ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1918. Pp. xii+164. \$1.00.

"An attempt to consider frankly and seriously the scientific facts regarding the problem called eugenics" has added this volume to the "Constructive Studies" published at the University of Chicago. It is a presentation of important discoveries concerning the laws and physical basis of heredity written in simple language for young people's classes. Through study of the facts and interpretations presented young people should be influenced in their individual conduct toward the laws of nature and as a result help to direct opinion on important social problems.

Most of the subject-matter is not too difficult for pupils of high-school age, and the book should furnish valuable supplementary reading for students of biology and botany in the high school. It will be of particular value to reading circles and Sunday-school classes, since most of the material can be understood by those who have not had the opportunity of the high-school instruction in similar subject-matter. The questions at the end of the chapters furnish excellent problems for discussion.

Following a short introduction on the purpose of the book, facts concerning the development of racing horses and facts concerning human heredity introduce the discussion of the laws of heredity. The Darwin-Wedgewood-Galton family, Jonathan Edwards' descendants, and Max-Jukes's descendants furnish

¹ Contributed by C. J. Pieper, University High School, University of Chicago.

the facts about human heredity. The tabular form in which these facts are presented emphasizes the fact that certain abilities run in human families as well as in racing horses.

Chapter iii on "Male and Female" considers in non-technical fashion the process of sexual reproduction in the higher forms of plants and animals. The May-apple flower, the frog egg, and the hen egg are chosen to show that the offspring in the higher forms of life is a joint product of two parents. This leads to Mendel's laws of heredity (chap. iv) derived from his study of yellow and green peas. The results of Mendel's work and the author's interpretation are especially clearly stated.

From the laws of heredity one proceeds to a résumé of practical results gained through the knowledge of these laws (chap. v) as well as by results of chance hybridization. The Ancon sheep, the polled Hereford cattle, the navel orange, disease-resistant cabbage, corn for special uses, and Burbank's work on the daisy and potato are considered.

Chapters vi and vii which consider "Visible Basis of Heredity" and "Exceptions to the Law" are somewhat more technical than other parts of the book. The theory of the chromosomes is difficult for the lay reader but prepares the way for the later discussion of "Acquired Modifications" and "Inheritance in Human Characters" in chapters viii and ix, respectively.

In these chapters are given in review form Brown-Sequard study of epilepsy in guinea-pigs, Weismann's germ-cell and somatic-cell theory, distinctions between physical and social inheritance, explanations of results of venereal disease in parents and the excessive use of alcohol, Goddard's study of feeble-minded (Kallikak family), Loeb's study of blindness, and tables showing descendants of Peter the Great of Russia, Ferdinand and Isabella, and the Hohenzollerns.

The book closes with definite suggestions for improvement of the race through selective breeding, and for control of undue increase of the undesirable elements of our population.

For the person particularly interested in this subject the author has added an excellent bibliography.

COLVIN, S. S. *An Introduction to High-School Teaching*. Chicago: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. xix+451.

Three types of books have been published recently which deal with the problems of teaching in high schools. The first deals with the general principles of teaching and is illustrated by Parker's *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*. The second type discusses under separate topics classroom instruction in the various high-school subjects. This type is illustrated by Monroe's *Principles of Secondary Education* and Johnston's *High-School Education*. The third type discusses in detail the teaching of a given subject or a closely related group of subjects. Twiss, *Science Teaching*, is a good representative of this type. Dr. S. S. Colvin's recent book entitled *An Introduction to High-School Teaching* belongs to the first type of texts inasmuch as it deals primarily with the general principles which underlie effective teaching.

The author observed two practical considerations in writing the book. In the first place he asked himself the following question in connection with each chapter: "What ought the beginning teacher most of all to know in advance of entering upon his profession?" As a result a large part of the book is devoted to such issues as discipline, classroom management, questioning, etc. In the second place the author believes that a book should contain a wealth of illustrations and should issue in many practical applications. In harmony with this point of view a large number of specific examples have been used with the hope of giving point to the various facts and principles discussed. These examples have been chosen from the larger number which the author has collected during the last five years in the capacity of inspector of high schools for the state of Rhode Island, and they add very greatly to the value of the book.

The content of the book is organized about the following topics: (1) "The Nature and Scope of Secondary Education" (chap. i); (2) "The High-School Pupil and Teacher" (chaps. ii and iii); (3) "Discipline and Class Management" (chaps. iii-vii); (4) "Methods of the Class Period" (chaps. viii-xiv); and (5) "The Question as a Method of Instruction, the Lesson Plan and Supervised Study" (chaps. xvi-xvii). The first chapter presents an excellent summary of the modern point of view concerning the nature and scope of secondary education. An unusual amount of attention is given to a comparison of American and European secondary education. The junior high-school movement is very briefly discussed in view of the recent large emphasis which it has received throughout the country. The second and third chapters emphasize the importance of a thorough knowledge of the characteristics of high-school pupils and the value of appropriate professional attitudes and ideals. The problems of discipline and classroom management are discussed at length. Valuable suggestions are offered for securing effective results. A reader would expect the author to discuss the methods of the class-period from the standpoint of the types of learning involved. The author, however, departs from the psychological classification of these problems and presents them under the following divisions: testing the knowledge of the pupil, drill, and adding to the knowledge and technical ability already possessed. The use of standard tests is discussed in connection with methods of testing the knowledge of pupils. One is somewhat surprised to find that more attention is not given to the value and use of tests. Considerable attention is given to inductive and deductive lessons, although these terms have been rapidly disappearing from discussions in the literature of methods during recent years. The chapters on questioning, plan writing, and supervised study are very suggestive.

This text represents a valuable contribution to the literature on methods. It will prove very helpful to the inexperienced high-school teacher and can be used to great advantage in normal-school and college classes which are studying methods of teaching in high schools. There are two limitations which should be mentioned in regard to the general character of the text. In the first

place the principles of teaching are presented as a series of well-established precepts which are to be followed. Presented in this form the book may fail to stimulate the spirit of inquiry on the part of teachers which is so essential in the progressive reorganization of high-school teaching. In the second place very few experimental data are included. Hence the reader will fail to find the evidence which supports many of the valid principles of teaching outlined in the book. From this point of view the book is written presumably to meet the needs of teachers who wish specific suggestions concerning teaching rather than the facts and experimental evidence which support given lines of procedure.

III. CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED IN JANUARY

(Books marked thus (*) reviewed in this issue.)

A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND PRACTICE

- COLVIN, STEPHEN SHELDON. *An Introduction to High-School Teaching*.* New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 451.
- DOWNING, ELLIOT ROWLAND. *The Third and Fourth Generation: An Introduction to Heredity*.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1918. Pp. xii+164.
- INGLIS, ALEXANDER. *Principles of Secondary Education*.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. 741.
- HANUS, PAUL, et al. *The Teaching of Economics in Harvard University*.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1917. Pp. xiii+248.

B. PUBLICATIONS OF UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

- MONAHAN, A. C., AND DYE, C. H. *Institutions in the United States Giving Instruction in Agriculture, 1915-16*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917. Pp. 115.
- . *Practice Teaching for Teachers in Secondary Schools*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917. Pp. 82.
- Vocational Education: Annual Report of the Federal Board*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917. Pp. 32.

C. TEXTBOOKS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

- JOHNSON, CLIFTON. *Poems My Children Love Best of All*. New York: Lloyd Adams Noble, 1917. Pp. xviii+256.
- MACELROY, MARY HOLBROOK. *Work and Play in Colonial Days*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. vi+163. Tales and folklore of the days of our grandmothers made attractive for children of the middle and upper elementary grades.

- MITCHELL, ADDIE F. *Paz and Pablo*. New York: World Book Co., 1917. Pp. 95. A story of two little Filipinos. Designed to open up to young children the study of history and geography as living subjects.
- POTTER, MILTON C., et al. *Oral and Written English*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1917. Pp. xix+329+xviii. Book II. Pp. xiii+420+xxvi.
- SMITH, LAURA ROUNTREE, et al. *New Common-School Song Book*. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1917. Pp. 174. \$0.40.

D. TEXTBOOKS FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

- ALEXANDER, P. F. *The Discovery of America, 1492-1584*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1917. Pp. xviii+212.
- ADAMS, HENRY C. *Description of Industry: An Introduction to Economics*.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918. Pp. x+270.
- CLARK, CHARLES UPSON, AND GAME, JOSIAH BETHEA. *First Latin Year*. New York: Atkinson, Mentzer & Co., 1917. Pp. vii+353.
- HITCHCOCK, ALFRED M. *Composition and Rhetoric*.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917. Pp. xi+575.
- ISAACS, JORGE. *Maria*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1918. Pp. xiv+209.
- OEHLMANN, HANNA M. *Schritt für Schritt*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1917. Pp. vi+151. \$0.60.
- NITZE, WILLIAM A., AND WILKINS, ERNEST H. *A Handbook of French Phonetics*. 1918. Pp. viii+106.
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